

# The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 8

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

DECEMBER, 1947

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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# The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1947

## John Doe in Wonderland

FREDERICK MAYER

*University of Redlands, Redlands, California*

1

More important than academic thinkers in American culture are motion pictures. Hollywood has become a magic word to millions and has affected not only the moral code and the ideals of the average American but even his speech, his dress, and his thinking. The Hollywood legend is constantly being glamorized by a host of publicity men whose advertising techniques are superior even to those of high-powered industrial concerns and by gossip columnists writing in hundreds of newspapers about the private lives of the screen stars. Actors and actresses themselves keep in the limelight by periodic divorces, elopements, and love affairs. Occasionally, the Committee on un-American Activities starts investigating the political opinions of the screen capital, adding thereby to the publicity.

The best study on Hollywood has been made by Leo Roston, who attempted to show by means of statistics that its inhabitants **were like the** people of other cities, that, for example, its producers are not illiterates, that over 50 per cent of them have even gone to college, and that the rate of divorces there is not so high as commonly suspected.

It must not be forgotten that many of the outstanding moguls of Hollywood had a colorful background; they gained their artistic experience in such fields as pants pressing, butcher shops, and vaudeville, which may prove perhaps that America is still a country of un-

limited possibilities. Other aristocrats of American society, like the Vanderbilts and Astors, likewise had strange beginnings in such undertakings as the whiskey trade and fur trading. After success comes, the new aristocrats dislike to be reminded of their origin. The same holds true for the reigning powers of Hollywood.

As products of an intensely competitive age, their interest in culture is limited, and they naturally evaluate motion pictures according to box office figures. It seems strange that such a powerful agency of public control should be dominated by men without artistic training.

Whereas the producers are the dynamos behind motion pictures, the directors are the technical experts. Their task is complicated by the dictatorial manner of their bosses and by the changing temperament of the stars. Hence a director should combine the imperious spirit of Napoleon with the gentleness of St. Francis.

Actors are the most publicized creatures of Hollywood; often their success story is amazing. Fred MacMurray was a saxophone player before the world discovered his acting ability; Dorothy Lamour was an elevator operator. Reading these stories, the public believes that such success can come to anyone, regardless of his qualifications. Many of the Hollywood luminaries were discovered through beauty contests, a ritual dear to the American heart. Hence if a girl wants to succeed in the world she must know how to wear a bathing suit

well, and she should have a smile with a promise of spring. As for her acting ability, that is unimportant, because there are skillful directors who will tell her just how to laugh and how to cry and how to look at men. Even if she could not act in a junior high school play she may be eligible to become a great dramatic star in Hollywood.

The types created by the motion picture industry are as interchangeable and stereotyped as the parts of a Ford motor car. There is the sinister scoundrel like Boris Karloff and the suave and stout scoundrel, Sydney Greenstreet. Dear to the feminine heart is Charles Boyer, who is supposed to represent the Frenchman making love and whose voice has an almost magic effect upon women from the age of eight to eighty. Bette Davis represents the deep intellectual type; and Dorothy Lamour specializes in wearing sarongs, not saying much but just looking mysterious. The main trouble with these types is that most of them do not represent real human beings, that too often the emphasis is upon glamorous youth, and that they misrepresent life. For the average American woman is not like Dorothy Lamour, but given to stoutness, over-eating, and gum-chewing; and the American man is paunchy, has a flabby face, and is about as romantic as George F. Babbitt. Moreover, most of the types created in Hollywood are entirely superficial and appeal to a juvenile interest. They portray play-boys and play-girls rather than the real creators of American civilization.

Part of the shallowness of motion pictures can be attributed to the writers, who are tempted by lucrative offers, often as high as \$100,000 for a motion picture. Why should they write serious novels, which at best may bring only half as much, when they can earn such a vast amount of money in a short time? Why should they think deeply, rewrite their books three or four or five times when they can turn out a motion picture script by using the same standard situations and the same standard characters? In Hollywood the writer is told that the members of his audience have the intelligence of 12-year-olds. No wonder that the writers feel a sense of frustration; the climate of California, endless cocktail parties, and association with immature people enfeeble their brains.

## 2

Hollywood lives on publicity; that is why the première of pictures is such a festive occasion—to use Hollywood terms, a super-colossal, gigantic, and sensational event. Let's say the première of a new picture is at Kansas City. Weeks before, publicity agents will have come to this metropolis, and they will have informed the newspapers about the private life of the stars. Local reporters will interview the parents of the star of the picture, his school friends, and the girls he knew. There will be posters in the street, ads in the newspapers, telling the citizens of Kansas City about the coming event. Elaborate plans will be made by the mayor and the chief of police for a parade.

Then comes the great day. The train arrives at the station, the stars are mobbed by their admirers, girls try to get an autograph or the tie or coat of the hero, who has to be provided with police protection. Later there are interviews at the hotel where he is asked by the press about his views on such topics as the atomic bomb and Russia and American women. Afterwards a parade takes place, streets are lined with thousands of people, five bands are playing, airplanes are circling overhead, and the crowd cheers hoarsely.

In the evening, finally, comes the première. Grandstands have been erected near the theater from which the crowd can get a glimpse of its idols; klieg lights range against the sky; again there are the flash bulbs of newspaper reporters as they take pictures; and the event is described in full detail on a national radio hook-up. Next day the citizens of other American cities and the people abroad are informed through the Hollywood columnists of what happened in Kansas City.

A philosopher looking impartially upon this spectacle would probably remark, "Much ado about nothing," for most motion pictures are soon forgotten and their content varies little. There is little real difference between one motion picture and another.

There are four standard plots. Most important is a love story. Sometimes a young man who is not blessed with an abundance of material goods falls in love with a rich girl. Occasionally as a variation of that theme a poor girl falls in love with a rich man. To extend



the story and to lend suspense to the act, villains are needed. Usually another girl is introduced who is fast and unscrupulous, or there might be another man, or a father, or in-laws might be roadblocks on the road to love. Invariably these obstacles are overcome by the intensity of true love.

To make the action even more dramatic, a war background may be introduced. The lovers found each other dramatically, but they have only four days, and afterwards—terror, uncertainty, and the agony of battle. Naturally that makes their love even more fervent and there is even greater sympathy on the part of the audience for their ordeals. With a new interest in psychology, psychopathic characters are favored; often the villain suffers from such diseases as a split personality and a paranoid complex. These complexes are pictured in most lurid colors and with almost physiological detail. Perhaps they are anthropomorphic pictures of Hollywood life.

To make the picture complete, a night club should be introduced. It does not matter whether the night club is in New York or in Algiers or in Shanghai. Such a portrayal lends an exotic and escapist flavor to the picture, and the clerk in a store who has never seen a more refined place than the bar at the corner can now see himself dance at the Stork Club in New York or he can picture himself exploring the mysteries of the Montmartre in Paris.

Since there are various types of love, Hollywood occasionally also produces pictures about dogs who are most loyal to their masters and children who are a joy to their parents. Some of these children are angels who straighten out the most difficult family troubles, and in that way they are quite different from the spoiled, ill-disciplined offspring of most American middle class families.

The second standard plot deals with gangsters. Humphrey Bogart used to be the prototype for rugged, unscrupulous action until he met Lauren Bacall and found whistling more profitable than gun shooting and killing cops. These gangster pictures bring excitement and adventure to the screen. Undoubtedly they teach many criminals new tricks, for they always have novel ways in the art of murdering, burglary, and gambling. Policemen are usually

pictured as stolid, empty-headed characters unable to solve a crime without the aid of clever private detectives. Once in a while gangsters reform on the screen. Suddenly, they see the error of their ways and give up gambling and vice and settle down with a pure, vivacious blonde in Brooklyn or Los Angeles, where their wives make good respectable citizens out of them. If they do not mend their ways, justice, the Hays code, and the Legion of Decency demand that their crimes be punished. Compared with the policeman, however, gangsters lead a fascinating life. And, to many impressionable adolescents, the life of crime must seem far more exciting than the dull routine of law-abiding citizens.

During the war the gangsters were replaced by Germans. Hollywood had a very definite idea of the way the average German acted and believed. He was arrogant and cold, with a heart of steel, the symbol of the Prussian spirit, and he also had a secret membership in the Gestapo. The Japanese were portrayed as even more sneaky characters, who were sadistic enough to murder their own mothers; they all belonged secretly to the Dragon Society, which was a mixture of the Ku Klux Klan, the FBI, and the Japanese version of the Rotary Club.

Extremely popular in America are cowboys. They may not be able to read and write, but they are experts in gun shooting and cow punching, and some of them have acquired the noble art of singing. Hearing their hillbilly songs one almost wishes that silent pictures were back again, but progress cannot be held up.

Most boring of all motion pictures are musicals. The super-colossal plot usually features a singer, either male or female, who is struggling hard to get recognition, nearly starving, sometimes even contemplating suicide. Then fate intervenes; the singer becomes famous and also finds love. Many musicals do not have a plot at all, a lack which does not bother many people, for the musicals are equipped with hundreds of gorgeous girls, all smiling, all dressed scantily, all engaged in rhythmic military motions or in seductive, sensuous dances. Musical may feature jazz or Gershwin or Chopin or grand opera, or they may combine all types to give the customer his money's worth. And they may even add comedians to provide

humor. Occasionally they will deal with more serious topics, as in "A Song to Remember," where the life story of Chopin was explained so beautifully to the average theatre-goer. Chopin became not only a great composer but an irresistible Polish patriot and a passionate lover of George Sand, who was the main motivation behind his composition.

The fourth type of movie contains a historical plot. Across the screen sweep such leaders as Caesar, Columbus, Napoleon, Jackson, Lincoln, and Wilson. With magic insight Hollywood has found a real explanation for the moves behind history. Economic institutions are entirely unimportant; political events deserve only a pass-

ing notice; what explains the acts of the great leaders of history is love. Why did men become evil and destroy empires? The answer is clear: because they did not find the right kind of girl; or they may have been repelled by the girl they loved and afterwards they became villains. Most dear to the Hollywood mind are large-scale battles, especially when they involve medieval knights. Duels also provide valuable dramatic action, just as in more refined modern times fist fights are portrayed with technical accuracy. Hollywood is not concerned so much about the life of the common people through the various ages, but instead turns to the existence of the aristocracy, to glittering court life, and to ornamental boudoir scenes.

## The Marshall Plan and the Social Studies

DAISY GRENZOW

*Editor, "Every Week," Columbus, Ohio*

For months, the Marshall Plan will be the biggest problem before this nation. Its effects, whether it be accepted, rejected, or modified, will shape the world for decades—or until the next war. Social studies departments know that they must teach it. The Marshall Plan is social science on our doorsteps. And it is a gold mine providing opportunities for much of what social studies teachers want to accomplish.

Here are some of the chief nuggets social studies teachers will find:

1. The opportunity to correlate history, geography, economics, and civics through a vital current problem.
2. The opportunity—rather the necessity—to bring to the classroom many resources. The opportunity to show students how indispensable many sources are.
3. The opportunity to introduce students to controversy. The opportunity to show students the sincerity of conflicting opinions.
4. The opportunity to teach the interdependence of nations and even continents.

5. The opportunity to teach students to weigh facts and make judgments.

*Correlation of Subjects.* Social studies teachers must realize that the Marshall Plan cannot be taught with any completeness without contributions from many fields of the social studies curriculum. The wealth of contributions of these fields is, in fact, embarrassing. Before the war, Europe was one of the great industrial centers in the world. How did Western Europe become a center of industry? History and geography answer. The Industrial Revolution began in Europe. Western Europe had the natural resources to support great industries. A great industrial population grew up. Western Europe is short of food today, but in the past it was nearly capable of feeding its great population. Denmark grew forty bushels of wheat to the acre, as compared with fifteen in the United States. France raised more wheat than Argentina. Such achievements were possible by intensive farming and the wide use of commercial fertilizers. Such facts need to be studied

in specific detail to give students a solid comprehension of the picture. Large generalizations are useless—possibly dangerous.

How did Western Europe get into its present state? The war is the first answer, of course. But students need to know that industrial nations are likely to suffer far more in modern war than simple agricultural economies. Destruction of industries, destruction of transport on both land and water, the break-up of international trade, the loss of customers, shortage of labor, the lack of industrially produced fertilizer—these are the penalties that war exacts from industrial nations.

Is war the only answer? For all its natural resources and great industries, Western Europe before the war did not have so high a standard of living as the United States. The contributions of history and economics give the student some light. The United States is continental in its sweep. Western Europe is about a third as big, yet it is divided into sixteen independent nations (not counting Spain, but including Greece and Turkey). Those divisions, of course, come out of history. Generally, Americans say, "Tsk! tsk!" without sufficient comprehension of what such division has meant. Social scientists like to say that industries and food production grow up in those areas which are best suited to them. But remember, these nations are independent, each able to try to make itself strong in certain industries. Tariffs encouraged industries within the borders of one nation without regard to the greatest natural advantages within the whole of Western Europe. Many of the nations of Western Europe—even the leaders—were too small to support the efficient operation of modern industries under mass production supported by mass markets. Some of these nations had automobile industries, but in none of them did motoring become the pleasure and the necessity that it is in the United States. Thus, the geography, economics, and historic national policies of Western Europe are intertwined. By studying the Marshall Plan, students will see that the social studies are "all of a piece."

How much help can the United States afford to give Europe? The Administration is making an intensive search for the answer. Social studies students should parallel that search. Students are accustomed to the statement that

the United States is the richest nation in the world. How rich is richest? They need to compare our prewar resources with the prewar resources of other areas. This is geography study with a new motive. The United States did not lose so many men in World War II as did our Allies, but we made a far greater contribution of our mineral resources to the war than did our Allies. Which of our mineral resources are now in danger of depletion? In some minerals, we have never been self-sufficient. In others, our position is changing or has changed. For which of these can synthetics be used as a substitute? The reports of the Harriman and Krug committees need to be carefully studied. Those reports will be compiled from the contributions of geography, history, economics, and related fields.

How much help can we afford to give Europe? Can we afford not to help Europe? Answers need to be searched for in terms of history and economics. What happened after World War I? What were our policies then? Are we being asked to send abroad a greater proportion of our total production now than we sent during the war? In the end, of course, Congress must make a *judgment* and set a *policy*. Social studies students are not setting the policy. But for understanding, they need to look for *ascertainable answers to pertinent facts*.

*Use of sources.* The questions posed by the Marshall Plan are difficult to answer. Certainly, politicians are finding them so. Students who study the Marshall Plan will find background in their familiar geography and history texts. For the news, as it develops, they may find their best tool in current events papers especially prepared for high schools. These papers, the best of them, are "slanted" for use in the classroom; they are intended to do part of the teacher's work for him. Such papers contain maps, charts, and graphs for classroom use and on a level that high school students can understand. These are visual aids putting complicated relationships in simple form.

Specially prepared pamphlets that are current are also needed. The Foreign Policy "Headline" books are an excellent example. Students may read current magazines and newspapers and listen to the radio with real motivation. It would be a fine thing for students to know that



statesmen and politicians are also searching for an answer. By their study, students may come to realize that the effort to be informed is not just a school task but a lifetime job.

*Controversy.* Last spring at a meeting of the board of the Junior Town Meeting of the Air, members agreed that high school students should not be shielded from controversy. Controversy is a part of the American scene, and students need guidance in weathering their first experience with its storms.

Bitter partisanship over the Marshall Plan is already evidenced by the use of such terms as "Uncle Santa Claus," on one side, and "Uncle Shylock," on the other. Students may laugh at these, but they may also see how small a contribution such terms make toward understanding. As great a mistake could be made by giving students material so neutral, so unbiased, that it has been veritably denatured. Such treatment often "denatures" the material of essential facts as well as of emotional content. Experienced teachers know that students have an uncanny way of "smelling out" such fear-someness.

The Marshall Plan is ideal for the students' introduction to controversy. First, the myriad of facts pertaining to it give broad scope for difference of judgment and opinion. After all selfish partisanship has been discounted (as far as can be), there is opportunity to show students the sincerity of conflicting opinions. That is surely one of the highest aims of all education.

*Interdependence of Nations.* One of the favorite principles of social studies is the interdependence of peoples and nations. Yet, al-

though thousands of students have passed examinations on this principle, it is evident that the world has not learned the lesson. The United States, as nearly self-sufficient as any nation, has spent billions on war and postwar reconstruction—to say nothing of the costs of the Great Depression. Cannot civilization forestall such costs by intelligent planning?

Willard R. Espy writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* on "A Lever That Can Lift the World" suggests how world T.V.A.'s might lift the level of world prosperity. Robert Price Russell, president of the Standard Oil Development Company, would use American technology to bring new fertility to the starved and wasted earth. This is interdependence applied in a modern context. If today's students learned this lesson, perhaps future wars could be avoided. All this lies in the implications of the Marshall Plan.

*Weighing Facts and Making Judgments.* A myriad of ascertainable facts are pertinent to the Marshall Plan, as we have said. By studying the plan, students can get experience in choosing those which are really pertinent and those which are merely related. They can see that some facts which are seemingly far afield may have crucial importance. Students will realize the difficulties faced by a Congressman who honestly tries to weigh the issues. The Congressman, not the student, fortunately, must make the decision. However, the student will learn much by trying to answer the question, "What would I do if the decision were up to me?"

Thus, the Marshall Plan may provide vital laboratory material for social studies classes.

## Education for International Understanding

DONN V. HART

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On the morning of August 12, 1947, the members of the Unesco Summer Seminar on Education for International Understanding met in the panelled library at Sèvres to welcome a

distinguished French statesman and educator. As he walked slowly into the room, frail and white-haired, bent by heavy years spent in German prisons during the last war, the audience,



applauding vigorously, stood spontaneously as a mark of respect for his work in behalf of international understanding. Later, gathered informally around the library tables, the members listened to the experienced voice of Léon Blum:

Men of my generation have known two occasions when it seemed that the task to which they devoted themselves might suddenly—in a single bound—be fulfilled. There is a certain moment at the end of total wars . . . when it seems that, as though touched by a magic hand, governments and peoples are ready and determined to do as much for peace as they did for victory. We knew such a moment at the end of the First World War, when President Wilson's Fourteen Points were proclaimed to the world. . . . And I knew such another moment when . . . in our prison cells in France and Germany [we heard] the news of the Atlantic Charter and the Dumbarton Oaks Conference. . . . We see today that the great occasion has gone; we did not rise to it, so we must take the slow way of cooperating in the laborious, uncertain, and difficult work of organizing peace and founding an international community of peoples. . . . These are the thoughts I want to share with you. I do so, I admit, with a happy tremor, when I think that here in this library . . . all of you, come together from the ends of the earth all bent to the same task, are already the reflection, the outline, the microcosm of the great universal cosmos which we are all seeking to establish. . . .<sup>1</sup>

While these wise words of Léon Blum underline some of the major reasons for the Unesco Seminar, they do not tell of its achievements. Perhaps the best way to judge the quality of the Seminar's success is to see how effectively its stated purposes were fulfilled. And in this general examination of the Seminar's activities, it becomes apparent that it stands out as a permanent landmark in the history of education for international understanding.

Dr. Howard E. Wilson, former Deputy Director-General of Unesco's Preparatory Commission and Director of the Seminar, has written that the "Seminar was envisaged by the

staff as having three primary purposes: first, the creation of bonds of friendly understanding and cooperation among the members resident at Sèvres; second, instruction and learning about the substantive topics on which the program of the Seminar was focused; and third, the production, by Seminar members, of reports and documents and memoranda which would be useful to Unesco and to the wider group of educators and students of education throughout the world."<sup>2</sup> For a six-week Seminar, this was indeed an ambitious and challenging program.

For the period of the Seminar, eighty-two people from thirty-one different countries lived together, dined together, planned together, and worked together. From India came a dark-skinned, robust Hindu who is head of the Training Department for Teachers in the University of Calcutta, an ardent Indian Nationalist, who has seen the inside of many prisons because of his political activities. From China came a handsome Chinese headmaster of a secondary school in Shanghai who receives a million Chinese dollars a month as salary—and whose wife had to pay six thousand dollars to send him a letter at Sèvres. Another Seminar member was a French woman physician: "She was connected with the Resistance Movement during the German occupation, was captured by the Gestapo, transferred from prison to prison, suffered physical violence when the Germans tried to force her to reveal details of the Resistance, and as a result she is partly deaf today."<sup>3</sup>

The statistical breakdown of the group is enlightening. Twenty members hold policy-forming positions in the educational ministries of their countries. There were nineteen university professors; eighteen were outstanding high school teachers, and eighteen were administrative officials of schools or colleges. Other members of the Seminar were graduate students, editors, professional writers, and social workers. The academic disciplines represented were diverse; for example, many were

<sup>1</sup> From published report of Léon Blum's speech to the Seminar, printed by Unesco. This small leaflet also includes Dr. Wilson's introduction of M. Blum to the Seminar group.

<sup>2</sup> Most of the information contained in this article was obtained from Dr. Wilson's personal report to the Director-General of Unesco on the completion of the Seminar.

<sup>3</sup> From a mimeographed report to the Board of Education of Toronto, written by Z. S. Phimister, Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools in Toronto, and one of the Canadian Seminar participants.

specialists in pedagogy, mathematics, languages, history, and science. The average age of the Seminar participants was above forty. These people not only brought years of experience and knowledge to the Seminar, but will, in general, return to positions of influence in their own countries that will enable them to put into action on a wide scale new ideas and plans learned and discussed at the Seminar.

"During the six-weeks period," Wilson's report states, "these people came to know each other as friends and co-workers. Group morale, at first low, because the Seminar began as an aggregation of strangers, rose steadily; there were virtually no untoward conflicts in social relations and a cohesive, sympathetic spirit was characteristic of the Seminar's later weeks. There was no discrimination in living arrangements or in Seminar work on such bases as race or religion or economic status or nationality."<sup>4</sup> Dr. Wilson continues by remarking "that the spirit of good will which developed among the Seminar members was not the idle spirit of companions on a ship; it was a deeper feeling resulting from having worked together and learned from each other. In a sense each person in the Seminar taught others about his or her own country and about his country's assumptions and practices respecting educational problems in which all were intensely interested. People who came together as strangers, separated as friends." From all the evidence and reports available at this date, there can be little doubt that the Seminar, in its own sociological developments, was a successful experiment in international cooperation.

The second primary purpose of the Seminar was presenting information to the participants about the substantive topics around which the program was organized. Two main topics were

selected. First was the study of international organization (including the United Nations and its specialized agencies) and means of improving instruction about international organization in the school systems of participating states. The second topic was the exploration of national cultural differences influencing individual growth and development during the years of adolescence. As Dr. Wilson reports: "The first area was a direct approach to improvement in school curricula and method; the second was nearer the level of survey and research, intended to stimulate a new orientation for teachers on the problems of 'coming of age' in contemporary national societies."

The importance of the information and opinions exchanged informally among the Seminar members regarding national characteristics, institutions, folkways, and mores, particularly the trading of knowledge about educational policies and practices in the thirty-one countries represented, must not be overlooked. This is comparative education which is alive and compelling. Besides this means of obtaining information, the members attended classes, group discussions, and listened to fifty-one lecturers, some of whom remained at Sèvres for as long as two weeks. These lecturers came from thirteen different countries "representing an even larger background of cultures, academic disciplines, and fields of public services. Some of the lecturers came as great personalities, whose very presence," Dr. Wilson explains, "was an inspiration for participants in the Seminar; among them, for example, were Gilbert Murray and Léon Blum." Lectures, to mention only a few representative ones, were given on such subjects as "The American Character in its Relation to International Understanding" (Margaret Mead), "International Education — Some British Experiments" (Monica Luffman), "Cultural Elements in Teacher Education" (Karl Bigelow), "The Moral Development of the Adolescent in Two Types of Society, Primitive and 'Modern'" (Jean Piaget), and "Aspects of Guatemalan Indian Character Structure" (Antonio Goubaud-Carrera.)

A special library of approximately 1,800 books and pamphlets was made available to the members at Sèvres. Books which dealt with

<sup>4</sup> The states, with the number of participants from each, were: Australia (4), Belgium (3), Bolivia (1), Brazil (1), Canada (5), China (7), Czechoslovakia (3), Denmark (3), Dominican Republic (1), Ecuador (1), Egypt (2), France (5), Great Britain (5), Greece (3), Haiti (2), India (3), Netherlands (4), New Zealand (1), Norway (2), Poland (4), Syria (1), Turkey (1), Union of South Africa (3), United States (6), and Venezuela (2). The member states of Unesco not represented were Afghanistan, Lebanon, Mexico, Peru, the Republic of the Philippines, and Saudi Arabia. States not yet members of Unesco but actively interested in its work were invited to send participants to the Seminar entirely at their own expense: Hungary (1), Iran (2), Italy (1), Sweden (2), and Switzerland (2).

race and prejudice, adolescence, the training of teachers, teaching of the social studies, and international affairs were the ones most frequently consulted, according to the library statistics. A total of 49 films were shown during the Seminar's six-week session. Members of the Seminar were fortunate in being the first to hear the highly effective educational recordings made by the Department of Public Information of the United States.

There were no tests or examinations given at the Seminar, for it was felt such activities would have been inappropriate. Therefore, it is difficult to determine with precision what the members actually learned. "Yet judging by the reports written and by statements made orally and in writing, the members are returning to their countries with more applicable, functional information in the area of comparative education than could have been secured by any method other than the give-and-take discussions, focussed on specific tasks, which characterized this Seminar." The participants not only returned home with new, practical information, but also with an increased conviction that this knowledge must be shared with others in their country and put to work quickly.

Before the members of the Seminar left Sèvres, the staff requested them to list some of the activities and projects they planned to initiate once they returned home. From their replies it appears that they will probably start a chain of educational reactions around the globe which will be considerable. The Brazilian participant, who is responsible for radio work in his Ministry of Education "plans a series of radio broadcasts dealing with aspects of the work of the Seminar, and at the same time is committed to preparing a series of educational articles for Brazilian newspapers on the work of the Seminar." Two of the representatives from Australia are to be "released from their academic duties for about six weeks after their return home in order to travel throughout the country telling every major educational group in Australia about the Seminar." The audience to be directly reached by such individuals will mount into the hundreds of thousands. But speaking engagements, radio broadcasts, and newspaper and magazine publicity are only a few of the various means by which the Semi-

nar's influence will radiate from Sèvres to world-wide audiences, like a stone dropped into a quiet pool of water.

Consultative and planning enterprises directly involving the improvement of school practices constitute another reaction the Seminar will create in different countries. For example, "a member of the Seminar from Wales is not only committed to a group of addresses but also to consistent consultation with educational committees of administrative officials." One participant from Sweden writes that she is "planning to bring her Seminar experience to bear on the work of a general committee on curriculum reform now beginning to function in that country." Nearly all the national groups are also preparing detailed reports on the Seminar for their own governments.

In the near future, mimeographed reports, bibliographies, and lectures will come from Unesco House as a result of the Seminar. They are essential working papers which suggest further study and analyses of the topics covered. "The production of reports in the Seminar was emphasized, first, because it was felt that preparation of such reports was one of the best ways for the members to learn, and second, such materials would make it possible for the Seminar's achievements to reach a wider audience than could be assembled at Sèvres." Two major reports were produced by the Seminar, one on each of the major areas of the program. While these reports do not commit either Unesco or the Seminar as a whole to one point of view, and while their originality is more that of orientation to the material than content, they are sure to have a stimulating influence wherever they are read.

There is already available, in a limited number, a mimeographed report on "Social Studies Teaching and International Understanding," the work of the members of the Study Group on Social Studies Teaching and International Understanding, of which Leonard S. Kenworthy, American educator, member of the Unesco Secretariat and the Seminar staff, was chairman. The report lists ten ways "in which the various social studies can help produce the kind of young men and young women who can build our shattered and splintered world into a world society rich in its diversity but much more



unified than heretofore in its chief goals." Much of the material included in these suggestions is not new; the major significance of the recommendations is that an international group agreed upon them.

Social studies teaching:

1. . . . should include some study of each of the major areas of the world.
2. . . . should encourage students to take a special interest in some important aspect of world affairs.
3. . . . should stress the study of global geography, especially as it relates to the location and distribution of natural resources, including the world's supply of goods.
4. . . . should include the study of the development of individual human personality, especially as it relates to the development of desirable human relations.
4. . . . should combat prejudice against persons or groups on account of their race, religion, culture, sex, economic or educational status, and should emphasize the improvement of relationships between groups.
6. . . . should examine the story of international conflicts and international cooperation, with particular attention to the United Nations and its specialized agencies as a constructive means of international action.
7. . . . should include a study of current events and contemporary problems.
8. . . . should present relevant factual information, but it should also devote attention to the formation of attitudes and the acquisition of skills.
9. . . . should give special attention to the development of skill in critical thinking.
10. . . . should make use of the classroom, school, and community as laboratories for civic education, as a part of the preparation of pupils for intelligent and active participation in civic affairs as adults.

It is difficult, if not impossible, to measure precisely and fully all the achievements of the Seminar. Talks by former Seminar members may inspire and encourage a village school teacher in China, a principal in Norway, a col-

lege professor in Poland, a student in Bolivia, bringing results in the coming years which make the future. One cannot tell definitively the influence that eighty-two people will bring to bear in the far-flung corners of the world, over unknown numbers of people and unborn events. Yet the Seminar has furnished capable and sincere persons with bright, new sparks which will ignite a chain of activities extending into many areas of the globe, spreading into many levels of educational interests, and traveling into the near and far future. Some of the activities and projects to be initiated by Seminar members will be solidly constructive, of lasting and major importance; others, no doubt, will be timid and inconsequential. Yet nearly all of the participants have returned to their respective countries as agents eager to disseminate information gathered at Sèvres. The effectiveness of their activities will depend, of course, on their individual talents and national environments—and the developing vigor and strength of Unesco and its national commissions or co-operating bodies.

The Sèvres Seminar solved some problems and suggested others which need study and consideration before similar international study groups are called. There were not many precedents to guide this Seminar. Never in the history of education for international understanding has such a Seminar been held. One of Unesco's purposes in holding the Seminar was to experiment in the organization and conduct of such a Seminar. The Sèvres Seminar has left a tentative blueprint for other similar seminars to come, of ways and means of avoiding mistakes made and short-comings suffered; this achievement *per se* is of major importance.

When an evaluation is made of all the activities and projects Unesco has stimulated or sponsored during 1947, of their effectiveness and appropriateness in translating into reality the ideals of Unesco's Constitution, the *raison d'être* of the organization, the Sèvres Seminar will be, without doubt, one of Unesco's most successful and productive projects. There is unmistakable evidence, even today, that this distinctive Seminar will remain in the years to follow, a challenging and valuable guide for future work in the field of education for international understanding.



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## Canadian-American Relations in American History Textbooks

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### INTRODUCTION

The Canada-United States Committee on Education recently stated that "the educational institutions and agencies of the United States and Canada alike have a heavy responsibility for building in generation following generation the understanding and tolerance upon which good international relations rest." This committee had reason to suspect that the teaching about each country in the schools of the other was being neglected; it proposed a thorough study of the teaching that is being done at present in these fields in order to assess deficiencies and recommend improvements.

An inspection of recent studies of the Asiatic content and Latin-American content of American history textbooks indicates that those areas receive much fuller treatment in our texts than does Canada. The average American history text contains only about one third as much material devoted to our relations with Canada as with Latin-America, only one fourth as much as is concerned with Asia.

It is not difficult to understand why the textbook treatment of our relations with Canada has been neglected in comparison with that of these other areas. Authors are largely concerned with presenting to the student the major forces in our national development. In our dealings with other nations, the development of our national policy is most apparent at those periods of history when our expanding interests clashed or seemed about to clash with the expanding

interests of other nations. The bulk of the textbook treatment of our foreign affairs is the story of conflict, the clash of our interests with those of other nations, and the story of how those conflicts were resolved, peacefully or otherwise.

The major conflict of interests between the Canadian portion of the continent and our own was the friction between expanding French and English settlements, which culminated in the French and Indian War, and left a heritage of friction that continued as late as 1815. And this period is more adequately covered in our texts than is the more recent, but less bellicose, period. The absence of extended treatment of Canadian-American history since 1815 in our textbooks is partly due to the fact that the history of that period has been a peaceful one, unmarked by the dramatic flare-ups that make exciting reading. This traditional textbook emphasis upon international conflict is not necessarily sound. Periods of peaceful cooperation with others may have affected our nation as profoundly as have some bloodier periods. Surely, valuable lessons can be learned from the history of cooperation, as well as from the history of conflict.

The peaceful nature of Canadian-American history is not the only reason why that history has been assigned to oblivion. The very similarity of our cultures, resulting from a common British heritage, as well as from our close proximity and our continuous interchange of ideas

and population, has made Canada seem to be almost one with us, and certainly not a "foreign" nation that we must learn to "understand" by textbook study. The fallacy inherent in the assumption that only an inscrutably foreign culture needs to be studied and understood needs no attention here.

A third reason why the history of Canadian-American relations has received less attention from the textbook writers than have some other areas is that the foreign affairs of Canada have been managed until quite recently by the British Foreign Office; hence these affairs tend to be treated as British-American relations, when in reality they were Canadian-American. That the increasing importance of the emerging autonomous Canada was not sooner recognized by textbook writers might be attributed to the gradual undramatic nature of her development as an independent nation. Canadian independence was not achieved by a defiant declaration and a bloody battle as was our own or that of our Latin-American neighbors to the south. Nor was it achieved in one climactic stroke at a single convenient date that could be handily inserted into the list of important dates to be remembered by every student. This very orderly and constitutional development, which has defied textbook acceptance, constitutes an important lesson for our history.

Canadian-American relations are bound to assume increased importance to us in the years immediately ahead. Canada is a growing world power. Since attaining independence of action in the field of foreign affairs within the past generation, the direct diplomatic importance of our nearest neighbor has inevitably increased. As Canada assumes leadership in the United Nations outside the permanent Council members, it becomes more important than ever for Americans to deal with her knowingly. The war years have silhouetted the inescapable links of economic interdependence and interdependence in problems of defense. The growth of air travel, and especially the great circle routes from the United States across Canada to Europe and Asia will bring us still closer together. Yet another circumstance which makes important the understanding of Canada by Americans is the phenomenon that Canada has become in a sense a testing laboratory for certain innova-

tions in the fields of politics and administration. Some types of government experimentation can be more easily tried there than with our own more complex federal machinery. Efforts in the improvement in the administration of federal problems in Ottawa are closely observed by Washington, since the similarity of national backgrounds and cultures gives promise of valuable lessons to be learned.

These trends towards closer cooperation, towards inescapably more frequent and more significant contacts between the two nations, towards more roads that must be traveled together, demand that we thoroughly understand the neighbor with whom we are traveling. We must understand the likenesses and the differences between the two countries. We must understand what kind of a nation Canada is, and how she got that way.

#### ANALYSIS

American history is generally taught to all students at the three levels—elementary, junior high school, and senior high school. The teaching of American history is required by law or regulation in the elementary school in forty-five states, in high school in forty-six states. In practice, most students are exposed to American history teaching from three to six years during their public school experience.

This study is devoted to the content of American history textbooks relating to Canadian-American relations. The texts used, six on the elementary level, nine for junior high school use, and eight for senior high school, are all widely used texts, and represent, by publishers' estimates, at least 75 per cent of the classroom users. Eighteen of the twenty-three texts were published since 1940.

An outline of Canadian-American history was constructed with the help of teachers from both countries. It includes all of the points of contact in the histories of the two nations which are mentioned in the textbooks of either nation. This outline divides Canadian-American history into seven chronological periods, as follows:

- I Pre-Revolutionary Era to 1763
- II American Revolution to 1791
- III Conflict and Cooperation to 1814
- IV Boundary Settlements and Political Relations to 1860
- V The American Civil War Period to 1870



## VI Closer Cooperation to 1914

## VII The Canadian Nation, 1914 to 1945

The texts were scanned for all statements of direct historical reference to the territory which is now within the Dominion of Canada or which affected the development of the Dominion, whether or not the name Canada is mentioned. This includes Canadian exploration of the Mississippi Valley and the settlement of the Oregon territory boundary, but excludes all reference to Newfoundland. As much of each passage was counted as seemed in the mind of the reader to bear a direct relation to Canada, although in many cases it is impossible to know whether that relation would be apparent to the student.

It must be borne in mind that what the student learns of Canada in the United States history course does not represent the sum total of his exposure to Canadian affairs. Geography courses in the lower grades and courses in world history, modern history, or contemporary affairs on the secondary level may contribute as much more to his understanding of our northern neighbor. And within the American history course, the textbook material in itself does not necessarily represent the total impression, as this material may be supplemented by other readings or by teacher contributions. However, the textbook content does represent the probable minimum, and frequent maximum, amount of material that the student will encounter.

#### WHAT AMERICAN HISTORY TEXTS CONTAIN REGARDING CANADA

The twenty-three texts examined were found to contain a total of 248 pages relating to Canada, or 10.8 pages per text. The average content was 12.9 pages for the elementary school texts, 11.5 pages for the junior high school texts, and 8.4 pages for the senior high school texts.

The bulk of the Canadian content is devoted to the period before 1763, the period of French exploration and settlement and struggle with the English for possession of the continent. In the elementary school books 90 per cent of the total Canadian content was devoted to this early period, in the junior high school books, 76 per cent, and in the senior high school texts, 48 per cent.

Table I summarizes the amount of Canadian material found in the textbooks at each grade

level and the division of this material between the periods before and since 1763. In this table the total number of pages in a text refers to the number of pages of textual material exclusive of maps, pictures, charts, and the questions and exercises which frequently appear at the end of each chapter.

Level	Number of Texts	Average Pages of Text	Average Pages to Canada	Percentage of Total Text to Canada	Pages to Period before 1763	Pages to Period since 1763
Elementary	6	398	12.9	3.2	11.6	1.3
Junior High	9	430	11.5	2.7	8.8	2.7
Senior High	8	646	8.4	1.3	4.1	4.3

Table I—Content of American History Texts Relating to Canada

It is impossible to summarize the page totals for each of the six chronological periods from 1763 to 1945 since the total material per text for each of those periods amounts to less than one page, with only two exceptions. The senior high school text devotes an average of a fraction over one page to the War of 1812 period (III) and to the era of boundary settlements following the War of 1812 (IV).

An idea of the scarcity of text material may be gleaned from Table II which shows the total number of pages devoted to Canadian-American relations in each period. Reference to this table shows that six elementary school texts give a total of one page to Canadian-American relations in the period of the American Revolution (II), one half a page to the period of the War of 1812 (III), etc.

Level	Number of Texts	To 1763	1763-1701	1791-1814	1814-1860	1860-1870	1870-1914	1914-1945
Elementary	6	69.6	1.0	0.5	4.5	.2	1.1	0.5
Junior High	9	79.3	4.2	4.7	6.8	3.3	3.3	2.3
Senior High	8	32.6	5.1	11.5	11.2	1.3	2.6	2.9
Total	23	181.5	10.3	16.7	22.5	4.8	7.0	5.7

Table II—Total Pages Devoted to Canadian-American Relations by All Textbooks at Each Grade Level, According to Chronological Periods

The total amount of material contained in a textbook is not nearly so significant as the nature of that material, its organization, emphasis, and the net effect it is likely to produce on the mind of the reader. What will the American student know of Canadian-American rela-



tions when he has completed the course in American history? On the basis of the texts examined the answer must be—almost nothing.

The material is adequate in amount and organization for one period only, namely, the colonial. Nearly every text presents a thorough exposition of the exploration and settlement of Canada by the French, the conflict of French and English interests there and to the south, a comparison of the political and social systems prevalent in the French and English colonies, and the story of the struggle between France and England for control of the continent, culminating in the English victory in the French and Indian War. This background of a continental view of our history, showing the interrelation of the origins of Canadian and American nationality, is in no instance followed up with a continuing story of the interrelationship following 1763. The stage is set, but the play never comes off. In only one of the 23 texts examined does any topical treatment of Canadian-American relations appear for any period following 1763. The result is that the student's impression of Canada is colored by this overwhelming emphasis on a colonial Canada of fur traders and missionaries, and he lacks the understanding of the continuous development of Canadian nationhood and of the continuous relationship with the United States.

In the second period, that of the American Revolution, fewer than one half of the texts mention the single most important item of Canadian-American relations, the Quebec Act, and fewer than a fourth mention the important exodus of Loyalists from the 13 colonies into Canada, an event which greatly influenced the development of self-government in Canada.

The mention of the Quebec Act in a few texts fails to contribute to a real understanding of Canadian-American problems because it is an isolated mention of an event unrelated in the context to any prior or future Canadian-American relations. One of the fuller explanations given in a senior high school text is an example of what might be adequate treatment if it were presented as part of an organized topical explanation of Canadian-American relations in this period, but it fails because it is isolated.

One senior high school text includes a half-

page map labelled "The Effect of the Quebec Act" and one junior high school text uses a cartoon which includes a portrayal of the Quebec Act as one of several causes of the Revolution. Of the texts that refer to the Quebec Act at all, nearly all treat it merely as an example of British-American relations which incidentally touches Canada. Only a topical treatment of Canadian-American relations could effectively bring out the importance of this act for the future of Canada and the United States.

By far the bulk of the one page that the elementary books devote to Canada in the Revolutionary War period, as well as the four pages in the junior high school texts, and the five pages in the senior high school texts, is spent on incidental mention of military campaigns that crossed the border.

In the third chronological period, that of the War of 1812, Canadian references, though somewhat lengthier, are again incidental to Anglo-American relations. In discussing the causes of the War of 1812, most authors make reference to the clamor of the War Hawks for the annexation of Canada, and several quote either Henry Clay or Felix Grundy in that respect. The authors then proceed to a discussion of the "real" cause of the war—the impressment of American seamen—and Canada is again left as an incidental pawn invariably intruding upon the war scene in a sporadic series of American campaigns aimed at Canada, or British campaigns originating in Canada, without the student ever being given an opportunity to understand what were the true relations between the United States and Canada during this period. Most of the texts mention the burning of Washington by the British. Few explain that this act was in retaliation for our burning of York (Toronto).

The fourth chronological period, the period of boundary settlements and political relations from 1814 to 1860, has the greatest number of pages (average for 23 texts, nearly one page), excepting only the colonial period and also the closest approach to a unified treatment. A typical senior high school text devotes over a page under a heading "Nationalism Influences the Conduct of Foreign Affairs" to agreements with England. Included are a paragraph on each of the following:

1. A Commercial Treaty, 1815
2. Rush-Bagot Agreement, 1817
3. Fisheries Agreement, 1818
4. The Northern Boundary to the Rocky Mountains
5. Oregon Territory

Here again the emphasis is on agreement with Britain rather than on the settlement of Canadian-American problems. Fewer than half the texts mention the Rush-Bagot Agreement by name or emphasize its importance. One elementary school text devotes nearly two pages to a similar extolling of the unguarded frontier and includes a picture of the monument to the unfortified boundary with the caption, "Children of a Common Mother."

Period V, from 1860 to 1870, is one of almost total neglect, the 23 texts together accounting for only four and a half pages of treatment, although the period includes the American Civil War and Canadian Confederation, two events closely related in our common history, and all comparisons of the American and Canadian forms of government. No reference was found to Canada in relation to our Civil War except for the casual mention by a number of authors of Canada as the terminus of the Underground Railroad. The Fenian Raids are nowhere mentioned. The Canadian Confederation is casually mentioned in two texts, more fully treated in one. In the other 20 there is no mention of it at all.

The sixth period, that of closer cooperation from 1870 to 1914, is similarly neglected. The Alaska Boundary Settlement of 1903, the establishment of the important International Joint Commission in 1910, and the Reciprocity Treaty of 1911 are not mentioned in a single text. Two junior high school and two senior high school texts allude to Canadian relations in connection with the Washington Treaty of 1871, two junior high school texts refer to fisheries agreements, and two mention the discovery of gold in the Klondike, without, however, any reference to the importance of this event in respect to Canadian-American population movement or the Alaskan boundary. These references are so vague that the American student frequently assumes that the Klondike gold discovery was in Alaska, not in Canada.

More than half of the texts (two elementary, five junior high, six senior high) make some scattered mention of growing economic relations between the two countries, or of Canadian immigration into the United States. These references are brief and unrelated. They include such passages as "When this supply of workers gave out, agents of the factories sought new workers in Canada and in Europe" and "Every traveler in Canada, for example, notices there the numerous branches of American concerns which represent more than \$2,000,000,000 of American investments." One text has a 25-page chapter on "American Business Expands Abroad," without a single mention of Canada.

The references to immigration amount in most cases to a single bald statement that Canadians have migrated to the United States, without any attempt to indicate cause or effect. A number of texts mention the fact that Canada is exempted from the quota provision of our basic immigration law. Two texts mention Americans by name as being Canadian-born, one pointing out the publisher, James Gordon Bennett, the other noting James J. Hill and Franklin K. Lane.

The treatment of Canadian-American relations in the important period from the first World War to the present is accorded a tenth of a page in the average elementary school book, a quarter of a page in the junior high school history, and nearly a third of a page in the average senior high school text. Canada's participation in the First World War is not mentioned once.

#### GENERAL CRITICISMS

The conspicuous absence of any organized treatment of Canada since 1763 in most of the texts examined is one cause for the abysmal ignorance of American students about our neighbor nation.

Most of the factual material that is presented in the textbooks is correct and reasonably accurate, but is presented in such a manner as to give the student a distorted picture. Most of the references to Canada are casual and incidental; they fail to emphasize the significance to American history of the very fact that is being mentioned. In treating the War of 1812, nearly every text mentions the War Hawks and their clamor for the annexation of Canada.

but almost as an *obiter dictum*. They proceed to emphasize the impressment of American seamen on the high seas and give the student the impression that friction with the British in Canada was an incidental accompanying irritant rather than a major cause.

Because international relations are largely treated from the legalistic diplomatic viewpoint, and because Canadian foreign affairs were handled chiefly through the British Foreign Office up to the period of the first World War, the importance of our relations with Canada has suffered in the textbooks. International relations should be treated as the interaction of forces and influences affecting groups of people rather than as mere pronouncements of diplomats in their attempts to reconcile these forces.

Although the authors attempt, usually successfully, to present dispassionate and unbiased accounts of our foreign affairs, it would be unusual indeed if some traces of a national bias did not somewhere appear in a form that might irritate the sensibilities of the nationals of other countries. In respect to Canada, it is an unconscious, almost imperceptible distortion in our treatment of the War of 1812 problems, which might be interpreted by some as national righteousness. Another example is the treatment of the topic of Indian hostility in the old Northwest Territory just prior to the War of 1812. One American senior high school text says of this matter: "Their [British] agents from Canada were furnishing arms and powder to the Indians and encouraging them to resist the advances of the American settlers." The parallel passage from a Canadian history is:

Naturally the United States believed that the British officials had egged on the Indians to resist their new sovereign; but what really drove the tribes to make a last stand for their territories was the extreme demands of Congress for Indian land and the unauthorized advance of American frontiersmen.

Textbook writers on both sides of the frontier might consider well those few places in our common history, especially in the causes of the French and Indian War and the War of 1812, where national interpretation might vary somewhat, and make every effort to arrive at

an objective interpretation devoid of national prejudices.

To pick out a single important defect in the present textbook treatment of Canadian-American relations, these texts conspicuously fail to acquaint the student with the fact that Canada has become an autonomous nation, conducting her own international affairs. This is due in part to the overemphasis on the colonial period of her history and the neglect of the developments during the last century, and in part to specific misstatements or misleading statements.

If history is the record of the activities and achievements of human groups, related in a meaningful way, and frequently illustrated by references to representative individual leaders, then, if Canadian history has any importance to the American student, the names of some Canadian leaders should be familiar to him. The textbooks used in this study do frequently mention the names of Canadian personalities in the period of exploration, settlement, and Anglo-French rivalry, but in all the texts, there is only one casual mention of one Canadian personality since 1763—W. L. Mackenzie.

One junior high school text includes specific mention of 15 names of persons in this early period, including such minor characters as Saint Isaac Jogues and Rene Goupil, but not one mention of a Canadian in the nearly two centuries since the capture of Quebec by General Wolfe. One senior high school text refers to 12 Canadians in the early period by name, including such persons as Henri de Tonty and Jean Ribaut, but no one since Montcalm and Wolfe. Surely persons like John Verrazano, Celéron de Bienville, and d'Iberville, all of whom are mentioned many times, important though they may have been, are no more meaningful to the American student than John MacDonald, W. L. Mackenzie, or Mackenzie King.

The use of charts, maps, and pictures to supplement the textual treatment of Canadian-American relations follows the same pattern as the text itself, adequate in one period only, that early period of exploration and colonial rivalries. From one to nine pictures per text illustrate Champlain's men, LaSalle at Niagara Falls, Cartier landing on Gaspe, a post of the Hudson Bay Company, an Indian Fair, or



French trappers. Two exceptions are significant. One elementary school text includes a half-page picture of the monument to the unfortified boundary line, and one junior high school text contains a half-page picture of the Peace Bridge.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

If, as the Canada-United States Committee on Education proposes, "there should be provision in our school programs for direct study of the interrelations between the two countries," probably the most desirable place for this study in American schools is in the American history course. This recommendation is made for two reasons. First, the interrelation of Canadian and American histories becomes for us an important strain or influence in our national history. The essential interrelationships arise from our common history and will become more far-reaching in our future history. Secondly, the American history course is generally required of every student, so inclusion of the material in this course is the most likely way of assuring that every student will be exposed to it.

If the student in the United States is to become aware of the importance of each country to the other, both in the past and in the present and future, authors of American history texts must make a deliberate effort to include such topics in their texts as will bring out such awareness. The present texts, with one exception, make no topical reference to Canada at all after 1763. The incidental, almost accidental, references to Canada in our present texts are utterly inadequate in presenting the student with any concept of interrelationship. The present content, meager and inadequate as it is, does provide a foundation on which to build an adequate treatment. It is encouraging to note that authors are beginning to become aware of the importance of Canada for the American history student. The most nearly adequate text encountered in the study is the most recently published one.

Future American history textbooks should give deliberate attention to the influence of Canada and the United States on each other's destinies by topical rather than the present incidental treatment of areas of history common to the two nations. This topical treatment

should place more emphasis on more recent Canadian-American history, less emphasis on the colonial period. It should include some mention of Canadian personalities as an aid to vivifying history. It should strive to eliminate provincial and anachronistic phrases which create in the mind of the reader the impression of Canada as a colony. It should endeavor to approach a continental, rather than a purely nationalistic interpretation of historical events, as in the causes of the French and Indian War and the War of 1812.

Future texts in American history should emphasize the influence of the United States in stimulating other American democracies, including Canada. They should point out parallel developments in the two countries, economic, social, and political, so that the student will become aware of our likenesses and our differences and the extent of our dependence upon each other. And if the present need to indicate the place of the United States in the larger spheres—in the hemisphere and in the world family of nations—is to be effectively accomplished, there must be an adequate treatment of the position in these groups of the other nations which comprise them. Canada is our nearest neighbor, the sharer of our unguarded frontier, the largest of our hemisphere neighbors, and is the most influential member of the United Nations family, outside of the permanent Council members; it is particularly appropriate that our students be informed concerning the position of Canada in the world today.

The topical treatment of Canadian-American history here recommended must be more than a mere artificial attempt to give recognition to Canada by the inclusion of so many pages or topics in our textbooks. The proposal is rather for a realistic interpretation of the national history of the United States with a necessary recognition of the very great influence that Canada and the United States have had upon each other. It is a realization that we cannot properly understand our own history without an awareness of the interrelation of it with Canadian history, nor appreciate our position in the hemisphere and in the world today without a sound knowledge of the position of our neighbor.



The mutuality of our history begins with the geographic factors of our inhabiting the same continent, with geographic likenesses and differences that have profoundly influenced the movements of populations and the resources of the two countries. It extends through two and a half centuries of common colonial history, with similar European backgrounds, and continues through nearly two centuries more of political and cultural interrelation.

To treat adequately the story of Canadian-American interrelations would require some statement of these five concepts, each of which involves a large segment of our common history:

1. The influences of geographic likenesses and differences between Canada and the United States helped to determine the interdependence of the two countries.
2. The history of Canada markedly influenced the emergence of an independent United States.
3. The interrelation of the political histories of the two countries has influenced the destinies of both.
4. Economic relations between the two countries have become increasingly important.
5. Cultural relations between the two countries have been strong and reciprocal.

Ideally, each of these five bases of common history should be treated in textbooks at all levels. The nature and extent of the treatment will of course vary with the grade level for

which the text is intended and with the author's over-all plan of organization. In some books a separate chapter on the "Unguarded Frontier" might treat the entire five topics. In other texts, topics might be inserted in the appropriate chapter according to their organization.

It is particularly important that textbooks written for use on the elementary level should include attention to this continuous strain of interrelationships woven through the histories of the two nations, so as to provide the basic appreciation of this concept upon which to build a more detailed understanding in the upper levels. Knowledge, interest, and understanding are cumulative, and with basic understandings acquired in the elementary grades, more will be gained with the same effort on the secondary level.

This recommendation of a unified topical treatment of Canadian-American relations should not be interpreted as another demand for additional space in already overcrowded texts. All are aware of the pressures for more attention to Latin America, to Soviet Russia, to United Nations cooperation, or to some other national or international implication of American history. The proposal made here is not for additional pages in our texts to be devoted to Canada, but for a reorganization of the present scattered references and unbalanced treatment to afford a meaningful, unified presentation of Canadian-American interrelations throughout the history of the two nations.

## Thomas Jefferson, Father of American Democracy

JOHN P. DIX

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Thomas Jefferson was most versatile as a young man and as the "Sage of Monticello." He was student, public servant, architect, scientist, writer, inventor, educator, lawyer, reformer, philosopher, revolutionist, and doer. Jefferson dared, worked, led, and sacrificed as boy and man.

On July 4, 1826, fifty years to the day after the Declaration of Independence was adopted,

John Adams lay dying. He uttered his last words about his friend at Monticello: "Thomas Jefferson still survives." He did not know that Jefferson was also dying at that moment, as thousands were celebrating the fortieth anniversary of independence. But these two fathers of American democracy are not really dead. Their spirit and influence survive in word and in deed today. They upheld the cause of freedom

for which they fought, sacrificed, and lived.

*His Influence.* Thomas Jefferson was the most versatile and typical man of the age in which he lived—and for any age. He left the imprint of his personality on nearly every phase of life in his native state of Virginia, and on the young nation which was emerging and enlarging as a lighthouse of democracy for a needy world.

Most of us do well to achieve one or two things. But this father of democracy in America was superior in many worthwhile endeavors. He was a noted and productive writer of great influence, a thorough and devoted student, and a most capable lawyer. Jefferson inherited an estate which he enjoyed greatly and supervised carefully. He was a putterer in his vegetable garden, and an inventor of many things. His achievements as educator, scientist, and architect are noteworthy.

Above all, Jefferson was a great statesman. He served as justice of the peace, member of the House of Burgesses, member of the Continental Congress, minister to France, first Secretary of State, and as governor of Virginia. He reached that high office—which he did not include on his epitaph—President of the United States. Jefferson lived into his eighties and was mentally active and influential as the “Sage of Monticello.”

*His Education.* Thomas Jefferson was a product of the frontier in Virginia, but he had the bearing of an aristocrat. His education was most thorough. William Small gave him a lasting interest in mathematics and science; George Wythe inspired his revolutionary leadership and writings; and Frances Fauquier enlarged his economic and cultural background. Thus, to these three teachers, and to others who wrote their biographies into his life, young Tom Jefferson gave credit in his diary and writings. At the age of seventeen he entered William and Mary College where he became a disciplined, critical, and hard-working student.

*Youth.* There were common disappointments and normal setbacks in Jefferson's youth. His timidity in proposing marriage probably lost him a girl for whom he cared greatly. His playing of the violin at entertainments, and his flair for dancing, horse racing, and fox hunting, together with his enjoyment of play-

house and traveling exhibitions, stand out on the social side.

As a law student in the office of George Wythe, his study included Greek and Latin, the writings of political philosophers, historians, and poets, French, German, and political writings in the Anglo-Saxon. Young Jefferson was outstanding as a student and thinker and was in demand as a speaker; he was a leader in heated discussions and was one of the most popular members of the younger set.

*Manhood.* His meticulously detailed records, and the accounts of his finances, are both interesting and revealing. Jefferson was not always able to make ends meet. That does not mean that he was impractical, for he had to give much time to unprofitable public office. He enjoyed entertainments and music. His books took a large amount of money. In fact, these books became the start for the Library of Congress. One would neither think of him as a “tight-wad,” nor as extremely economical in many respects. Jefferson loved life, and usually had people around him. His home was open to many, and his time—and money—were required by his many endeavors.

Jefferson was admitted to the bar in 1767. His law practice was very successful. He married Martha Skelton, daughter of John Wayles, in 1772. This marriage brought him property and standing. His work included that of building beautiful Monticello, where he lived and pursued the activities of farming, science, and law. Included in his undertakings were inventions, industrial ventures, experimentation, gardening, studying and collecting, and the rearing of his family.

*His Schedule.* Jefferson's family life was a happy one, although he lost his wife in 1782, and a daughter two years later. He had the care and training of the other two daughters. His letter to his motherless daughter, eleven years of age, indicates an exacting father who is anxious for his offspring to be successful and happy. This schedule included: “from 8 o'clock to 10, music practice; from 10 to 1, dancing one day and drawing another; from 1 to 2, drawing on the day of dancing, and writing a letter next day; from 3 to 4, French; from 4 to 5, exercise in music; from 5 till bedtime English, writing, etc.” It is interesting to note that no time is

given for meals. His own life was well scheduled and regulated. As a lawyer, he worked very hard, handled many cases, and traveled a great deal.

*Creative and Inventive Genius, Achievements.* To get a true picture of Jefferson himself, one should read some of his writings. Besides his most intimate and personal diary, there are probably as many as 20,000 letters. Quite a number of these were written from France, where he represented the United States.

Many Americans believe that Jefferson was one of the signers of the Constitution, but this is not true, for he was in France at the time. The French Revolution interested him greatly and influenced him as Secretary of State when he returned to America. His sympathy was toward France, as Hamilton's was toward England. These two ideas and systems emerged later as political parties of great importance in American history.

He farmed scientifically. His gardens were outstanding. Legal records were collected, and he influenced the writing of civil and penal codes for Virginia. He wrote a *Manual of Parliamentary Practice*. His translation of Greek writings and his dictionary of Indian dialects are other achievements. Jefferson studied and experimented in the laboratory in natural history. His popularity as a violinist, debater, conversationalist, gentleman farmer, and successful lawyer have already been indicated.

His inventions included the dumb-waiter, the first storm windows, a movable bed on pulleys, the swivel chair, a weather vane, a music stand, and a special clock. He left his mark on architecture at Monticello, the Virginia capitol in Richmond, and the University of Virginia.

Jefferson's faith in the common people, and in their ability to govern themselves, never faltered. His influence on state and federal constitutional liberties was great. He was very proud of the fact that he had written the Declaration of Independence and that he had fought for the Virginia Statute of Religious Liberty.

*Jefferson's Political Leadership to 1800.* Since the author of the Declaration of Independence was such a great philosopher and thinker, we might expect him to be merely a dreamer or an idealist. He was both, and more.

Thomas Jefferson combined idealism and dynamic leadership of the "doing" type. His love for the outdoors and his skill as a horseman, hunter, and fisherman give evidence that he was more than an armchair philosopher. Ideals were interpreted in terms of action.

Jefferson was chosen a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1769. When the Revolution came, he joined with Patrick Henry and other liberals in the cause of liberty and justice. He drew up the *Summary View of the Rights of British America in 1774*, and the *Reply to Lord North* the next year. As a member of the second Continental Congress, his declaration for taking up arms was modified by John Dickinson.

After Richard Henry Lee, also of Virginia, had made his resolution: "the colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states," Jefferson, John Adams, Robert R. Livingstone, Roger Sherman, and Benjamin Franklin were asked to draw up a declaration of independence, which was passed by the Congress. Jefferson wrote the Declaration.

From 1776 to 1781 he served as a member of the Virginia legislature and as the governor of the state. Such reforms as a more just inheritance of land, the freedom of worship, the separation of church and state, a state-supported system of education, the elimination of the importation of slaves, and a revision of the punishments for crime were achieved.

These reforms were overdue because a landed aristocracy controlled the government, the Episcopal Church was favored by law, and education was undemocratic. Primogeniture, the passing of estates to the eldest son, was eliminated. A bill was passed making it easier for immigrants to become citizens. The breaking up of the Anglican Church in 1779, and the passing of the Statute of Religious Liberty in 1786, made religious toleration and the separation of church and state a fact in Virginia.

Jefferson's leadership in his native state of Virginia included his attempt to secure reforms in suffrage, education, laws, and slavery. Although he did not accomplish his ideals regarding the freeing of the slaves or the degree of free public education he desired, his achievements, nevertheless, were great at the time. People were beginning to see the need for demo-



cratic changes in line with their principles and ideals.

Although he was discouraged at setbacks, Jefferson returned to Congress, worked on a committee to draw up peace terms with Great Britain, reported the plan for our monetary system, and worked out a government for the territory in which the extension of slavery was prohibited. Jefferson thus influenced the decimal system of currency, and provided the basis for the Northwest Ordinance.

As governor of Virginia, he had been dissatisfied because he could offer no real resistance to Benedict Arnold and Lord Cornwallis. His finances had been given to aid the Continental cause. There is some evidence, however, that he was unhappy and possibly weak as an administrator.

Under his influence and leadership, Virginia gave up her claims to land west of the Appalachians. These western lands of Virginia and other states became territory for admission as states. Jefferson drew up the land ordinances of 1784 and 1785 which formed the foundation for the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Land was to be surveyed and sold; one section in each township was reserved for the support of public schools.

Joining John Adams and Benjamin Franklin in Europe, Jefferson helped discuss commercial treaties. But the United States did not seem to have standing or leadership in the family of nations. He was more successful with France than with England. Jefferson traveled in France and Italy, studied various subjects, and witnessed the beginning of the French Revolution. He had served as minister to France from 1785 to 1789, at which time he returned to become our first Secretary of State.

The differences between Alexander Hamilton, our first Secretary of the Treasury, and Thomas Jefferson, our first Secretary of State, laid the basis for the formation of political parties. Hamilton believed in a strong central government, financial security and stability, law and order, and the inherent worth of the business and wealthy class. He tended to distrust the common people and their ability to govern themselves. Jefferson believed in states' rights, a rather weak central government, and the inherent worth of the little fellow, the farmer,

the laborer, and the common man. He believed that all men are created equal and that they can govern themselves.

Hamilton believed in a loose interpretation or construction of the Constitution to give the national government greater power. Jefferson believed in a strict interpretation or construction of the Constitution to give the states greater power, and to limit the power of the federal or national government. Such differences are helpful to a democracy, for there are elements of truth and value in both.

Jefferson retired to Monticello in 1793. He became, then however, the leader of the Republicans against the Federalists. John Adams received 71 votes and became President, after Washington had retired from the presidency in 1796. Thomas Jefferson, received three votes less, 68, and became Vice-President.

Although Jefferson objected to the Alien Laws, restricting foreign immigration, and to the Sedition Laws, restricting freedom of speech and press, both were passed to avoid more trouble with France. Jefferson helped to draft the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, which opposed these measures. James Madison, his friend, helped him by preparing the Virginia Resolutions.

In the presidential election of 1800, he ran against John Adams, which resulted in a tie between him and his vice-presidential candidate, Aaron Burr. In accordance with the provision of the Constitution, the House of Representatives decided the election, but only after thirty-six ballots. Jefferson won and became the third President of the United States. It is interesting to note that Alexander Hamilton, the Federalist leader and an opponent of Jefferson's Republican policies and party, threw his influence toward Jefferson against Burr. This led to a hatred between Hamilton and Burr, which later on resulted in a duel and the killing of Hamilton by Burr.

*Thomas Jefferson, Third President of the United States.* In many respects, Thomas Jefferson showed himself to be the Father of American Democracy. He insisted that there should be neither pomp nor ceremony at his inauguration as President. Dressed in plain black, he walked to the Capitol—the first President to be inaugurated in Washington—to

take the oath of office as President. His eight years in the White House (1801-1809) were likewise filled with simplicity and service to the common man. The campaign had been hateful and the Federalists had written and spoken in a prejudiced way against Jefferson and against democracy as such. Democracy had no standing in many respects at that time. It took courage to take a stand because almost all "democrats" had no caste, no character, and no property. To his enemies, Jefferson represented the "rabble." He felt that his presidency was indeed a victory for his principles.

"We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists," he stated in his first inaugural message. Then he made a plea for unity, respect for the rights of the minority, economy in public expense, peace, commerce, and honest friendships with all nations, but entangling alliances with none. Other parts of this inaugural speech remind us of the Declaration of Independence and of his many other writings and utterances. His victory was great, especially in the West and in the South, where the masses were solidly behind him.

*Reactions to the "Revolution" of 1800.* Jefferson viewed his election as a revolution toward real democracy and away from rule by the "upper crust" or property class. His intention, however, was not to make any radical changes in the Constitution. He removed few of the Federalist office-holders. But many New Englanders hated him—or at least they felt that they did. One said: "We have now reached the consummation of democratic blessedness. We have a country governed by blockheads and knaves." Daniel Webster's father was ill and away from home at this time. He cried, "Carry me back home! I don't want to die in a Republican town." He had become ill in a New England town which had voted for Jefferson. Other stories indicate the hatred and distrust of certain groups.

*Leadership.* Jefferson's cabinet was remarkable in ability, and it acted as a unit. He delegated authority to Madison, Gallatin, Dearbon, and Smith. The first two were especially strong as Secretaries of State and Treasury, respectively. Both were also personal friends and admirers of Jefferson. It is interesting to observe that the President generally voted with mem-

bers of his cabinet, and that he avoided dictation. He was at their call when needed, and they all seemed to work in perfect harmony.

His administration is noted for the purchase of the Louisiana territory from Napoleon, economy in government, the demand against the pirates of Tripoli, the Lewis and Clark Expedition, the Embargo Act, and Jefferson's "Passion for Peace." We are considering his two terms as an eight-year administration.

Contrary to his states' rights doctrine and talk against national and central power, he carried on the Federalists' program and the authority of the national government. The expenditures for the army and navy were cut; taxes were reduced. The Alien and Sedition Acts expired. The Naturalization Act was extended so that immigrants could become citizens in five years.

The attempt by Jefferson and his followers to purge by impeachment several federal judges, among whom were Pickering and Chase, was unsuccessful. The right of the Supreme Court to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional and to set it aside was established in the *Marbury vs. Madison* case. Jefferson considered Adams' appointments to the Supreme Court just before he left office, ineffective, and obtained the repeal of the Judiciary Act of 1801.

Jefferson, contrary to his desire for peace, made war on Tripoli and forced the pirates to respect our flag and to cease demanding tribute. The purchase of Louisiana was a doubtful power of the national government. The United States obtained control of the Mississippi and a domain of over 800,000 square miles. Jefferson had become alarmed because this territory, which had been in the hands of Spain since 1763, was now in 1801 to be returned to France, to become, he thought, a threat and possibly a barrier.

"The day that France takes possession of New Orleans," Jefferson noted, "we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation." He sent James Monroe and Robert R. Livingstone to negotiate with Talleyrand, Napoleon's minister. Napoleon probably feared that he could not hold Louisiana and that he must concentrate on a possible war with England. In any case, the Louisiana Purchase of 1803 was one of the important achievements of Jefferson's administration. The acquisition of this territory was

one of the principal steps in the expansion and development of our country, doubling its land area.

His second administration was complicated and disturbed by the war between Great Britain and France. The Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon, and the Orders in Council by the British, stated their rights to seize neutral ships. The attack on our frigate *Chesapeake* by the British ship *Leopard*, and the seizure of many of our sailors were met by Jefferson by economic measures. He tried in every way to prevent war. The Embargo Act, which cut off foreign trade to a great extent, reacted against the United States more than it did against France and England. This act was repealed in 1809.

*Characteristics.* Jefferson considered all men on an equal basis. This belief was looked upon by many people as uncouth and beneath a President's dignity. He disliked discord and prejudice. As an example of his tolerance, a statement to his grandson is a case in point:

When I hear another express an opinion which is not mine, I say to myself, he has a right to his opinion, as I have to mine; why should I question it? His error does me no injury, and shall I become Don Quixote, to bring all men by force of argument to one opinion! . . . If he wants information, he will ask for it, and then I will give it in measured terms; but if he still believes his story, and shows a desire to dispute the fact with me, I hear him and say nothing.

Jefferson was a good mixer, a splendid host, a lover of people, an attentive listener, and a real leader in a democratic way resented by snobs. As President, Jefferson hated ceremony. He did away with the coach and six white horses, used by Washington and Adams, wrote and sent his messages to Congress, and met the British Ambassador informally, in dressing gown and slippers.

Jefferson stood six feet two and a half inches tall. His complexion was ruddy and resembled that of an outdoor man. He was thin, rather long-legged, and somewhat awkward in his movements. Ladies liked him. People felt him to be warmhearted, loveable, and devoted. Jefferson hated anything or anyone undemocratic. His passion for justice radiated in conversation.

He was accepted for himself. His influence was within *himself* and in his enthusiasm for liberty. Soft-spoken, he was firm and uncompromising when it came to matters of principle and right.

His frontier home influenced the young Jefferson. His father had taught him to shoot, to ride, and to rough it on the frontier. Thomas Jefferson inherited 1,400 acres and his father's good name and passion for truth and honor. Like his father, he was strong and healthy, and when he died at eighty-four, all his teeth were in his mouth and all were sound. Jefferson's intellectual curiosity and industry were also influenced by his parents in his early life at home.

He felt that government should have checks on its power. Jefferson believed in the worth of each individual and the ability of all to improve and advance themselves. He believed that a wide distribution and guarantee of the right of suffrage or voting would tend toward liberty and universal happiness. His confidence in the ability of the people to govern and improve themselves, his pride in his country and its beauty and future, and his contribution to our Bill of Rights (with Madison), and to other fundamental documents, are probably the greatest of any one leader in the entire world.

*Jeffersonian Democracy.* The principles and practices of government held and advanced by Thomas Jefferson and his followers are known as Jeffersonian Democracy. This influence is with us today in the United States. You no doubt have observed Jeffersonian clubs and Jefferson Day celebrations. The remarkable thing is that we can lift his words from the past and apply them today. Let us sum up some of Jefferson's principles and practices in his own words.

#### INAUGURAL ADDRESS

But every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names brethren of the same principles. We are all Republicans, we are all Federalists.

A wise and frugal government, which shall restrain men from injuring one another, shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has earned. This is the sum of good government . . . the best government



is that which governs the least.

Unnecessarily excessive taxation and extravagance in government are not consistent with a democratic government.

Equal and exact justice to all men.

Peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none.

A jealous care of the right of election by the people.

Absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority.

A well-disciplined militia, supremacy of the civil over the military authority, economy in the public expense, honest payment of debts, freedom, education, encouragement of agriculture.

#### DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.

... And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes, and our sacred Honor.

#### STATUTE OF VIRGINIA FOR RELIGIOUS FREEDOM

We the General Assembly of Virginia do enact that no man shall be compelled to frequent or support any religious worship, place, or ministry whatsoever, nor shall be enforced, restrained, molested, or burdened in his body or goods, or shall otherwise suffer, on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men shall be free to profess, and by argument to maintain, their opinions in matters of religion, and that the same shall in no wise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities.

#### LETTER TO GEORGE WYTHE ON DIFFUSION OF KNOWLEDGE

No other sure foundation can be devised, for the preservation of freedom and happiness. . . . Preach, my dear Sir, a crusade against ignorance; establish and improve the law for educating the common people . . . the tax which will be paid for this purpose, is

not more than the thousandth part of what will be paid to kings, priests and nobles, who will rise up among us if we leave the people ignorant.

*His Active Life and Retirement.* Thomas Jefferson retired at sixty-five years of age to his beloved home at Monticello. He had given about forty years of service to his country, and he was to give the next and last seventeen years more to study, science, and education—about fifty-seven years in all.

We should look at some of his inventions, gadgets, and drawings at Monticello and the University of Virginia. A perusal of his most noted writings, including the Declaration of Independence and the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, is a "must" for all Americans. Have you read the Declaration of Independence from the beginning to the end? The writer and his American history students do read it. They stop and interpret various parts of it. The beginning they all remember:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness.

But do you remember the last statement of the Declaration? The ending—and even more important than the beginning—which states what we must do to gain and maintain these rights is often forgotten, ignored, or underemphasized. Thomas Jefferson and the signers of the Declaration of Independence had much to lose in property, standing, and security if they failed to win the Revolution. But they were willing to risk everything in the cause of the democracy to which they were devoted.

Our pleasures, happiness, and country were made possible by our forefathers. Let us appreciate that fact and assume our responsibilities, duties, and obligations. Would you be willing to take this pledge, which was the concluding sentence of the Declaration—"And for the support of this Declaration we *mutually pledge* our *Lives*, our *Fortunes*, and our *sacred Honor*?" Would you have been willing to take the pledge if you had been one of the Fathers of American Democracy?

Thomas Jefferson was a member of the Virginia state legislature at the age of 22, a sup-

porter of the Virginia resolution against British imports at 26, the author of the Declaration of Independence as a member of the Second Continental Congress at 33, and the governor of Virginia at the age of 36. He did not flinch from work either in his teens or in early manhood.

No great American waited either for someone else to interest him or to work for him. The Fathers of the American Republic worked hard, studied hard, and sacrificed greatly. They started when they were young and worked their way upward through the "University of Hard Knocks." If they had opportunities, they took advantage of them. Isn't that what we mean when we say, "that all men are created equal!"

Perhaps World War II was due in part to our forgetting the last commitment in the Declaration of Independence. It is a citizen's duty, responsibility, and obligation to do his part. The Fathers of the American Republic pledged everything in the face of losing everything—property, popularity, standing, success, happiness, and their lives. Thomas Jefferson, like George Washington and the other young men and leaders at the time of the Revolution—most of them in their early thirties and even twenties, with their futures before them—could have been successful without risking his life and his fortune. But he believed in equality and freedom.

So many people visited Jefferson in his last years that they "ate him out of house and home." His large expenses led him into debt. Finally, he sold his library to Congress and was given a public gift of \$16,000, which helped him to pay off a debt of \$20,000. As the "Sage of Monticello," he lived with his daughter and grandchildren. He was a tall, distinguished, well-loved, and democratic figure to the last. People revered him.

He devoted time to building up his estate, which had run down while he was in office. His correspondence, especially with John Adams, indicated his many interests and studies. Madison, Monroe, and others came to him for advice. Jefferson gave guidance on legal and constitutional matters involving slavery, the courts, and education.

The University of Virginia, which was the best at the time, was conceived, planned, and

carried out by Jefferson. At 75 years of age, he put his great talents to work and to use—talents as an architect, educator, engineer, a planner and leader. He even showed the others how to do their jobs. Jefferson would ride horseback to oversee the building of the University of Virginia. Since he was approaching 80, this was risky. But a broken wrist and swollen streams did not stop this great American. Students, professors, and grandchildren loved him, admired him, and associated with him.

One of the most touching scenes was on his eighty-first birthday, when his old friend, Lafayette, made his visit to America and went to see Jefferson at Monticello. Because they had not seen each other for 35 years, they fell into each other's arms and burst into tears. Others present did likewise. Two great Fathers of Democracy from two different continents!

Thomas Jefferson in retirement continued his influence for freedom of the press, religion, education, and government. His early writings and fight for the Bill of Rights, state and national legal and constitutional reforms, and universal education were developed in public and private life and followed in retirement. We still celebrate Jefferson's birthday on April 13. America commemorated the two-hundredth birthday of Jefferson in 1943.

Not long before his death, Jefferson wrote the following epitaph:

Here was buried Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia.

Among all his accomplishments, he himself names these three. Even the presidency is not cited among the things for which he wished to be remembered.

*Possible Shortcomings.* In reading and reflecting about a great person like Jefferson, we must be careful to avoid extreme prejudice against, or extravagant praise for him. Almost all of us have shortcomings which make us appear like all other people. This is true of such leaders as Jefferson, Franklin, Washington, Adams, Madison, Monroe, Hamilton, and other Fathers of the American Republic. Their weaknesses make them appear as human beings like

ourselves. Their strong points and influence for good far outweigh their weaknesses, but that does not mean we should consider them as saints. There is enough evidence of their greatness without inventing a series of pious myths about them.

Thomas Jefferson would probably not be considered by many a capable or an outstanding administrator in the state or in the nation. He did not like details that an executive must face, nor the dignities and demands that went with the office. There is some evidence that he neglected some matters of efficient administration.

Some people might be critical of his entertainments and apparent extravagances. Others might consider that his faith in the common people, and his idea that the best government was that which governed the least, were impractical. He did not overthrow the Federalist program of 12 years under Washington, Adams, Hamilton, and others. Perhaps this was another inconsistency. His resignation as Secretary of State in 1793, because he protested Hamilton's policies, might be criticized. His purchase of Louisiana was really a loose construction of the Constitution, which he had opposed as leader of the Anti-Federalists.

Jefferson had some class leanings, for he favored the middle class, farmers, little people, and agricultural interests. One wonders if he gave due recognition to the monied people, business interests, and investors. There is some indication that he was inconsistent in his application of his principle, "that the best government is that which governs the least."

But Thomas Jefferson's strong points far outweigh any apparent shortcomings. His greatness is not reduced by them. Jefferson's contemporaries criticized him and his policies, which were considered radical and revolutionary. But we take for granted those same policies today. We just participated in World War II to safeguard the freedoms for which Thomas Jefferson stood 200 years ago.

Thomas Jefferson

(1743—1826)

*Mileposts*

1743—Thomas Jefferson was born at Shadwell about five miles east of Charlottesville, Virginia, in Albemarle County, April 13, 1743.

1757—The death of his father left him at 14 years of age the responsible head of a family of eight children. He was left an estate of 1,400 acres.

1760-1767—Young Jefferson was a student at William and Mary College, after having attended an English school and a Latin school. He studied law and worked as a copyist in the law office of George Wythe. Patrick Henry influenced him also. Jefferson was admitted to the bar in 1767.

1767-1774—He was a lawyer, member of the House of Burgesses, and he lived at Monticello. He married Martha Wales Skelton in 1772, thus acquiring added land and influence. He had six children, three of whom survived their mother, who died in 1782.

1774-1776—He served as a member of the Second Continental Congress, wrote the Declaration of Independence, and resigned from Congress to serve Virginia.

1776-1781—As a member of the Virginia Assembly, he served from 1776 to 1779, establishing inheritance and religious reforms. He served as governor of Virginia from 1779 to 1781. He fled from the British, who marched on Virginia in 1781.

1784-1789—Replaced Franklin as Minister to France.

1790-1793—Was Secretary of State under Washington, resigned in protest of Hamilton's policies, formed "Democratic Republicans."

1797-1809—Served as Vice-President under John Adams. Inaugurated as third President of the United States at 58 years of age. Purchased Louisiana in 1803. Enforced the Embargo Act against the French and English to retaliate against their impressment of our seamen.

1809—Retired to Monticello and established the University of Virginia in 1819.

1826—Thomas Jefferson died on the same day as John Adams, July 4, 1826. He had enjoyed 17 years of active retirement from public life. His last years were most interesting ones, in which he made permanent contributions to science and education, and even to government indirectly through Madison and Monroe and others who sought his advice. He was troubled



by debt from years of public service and hospitality.

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## Debunking the Debunkers

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Historians refer to the 1920's as an era of confused thinking and conflicting ideas. In that decade the stream of business reflected the rays of a "golden prosperity," but underneath, the current was saturated with undertows of agrarian discontent and eddies of corruptive profiteering. Entrepreneurs, Midas-like, extended their monopolies while preaching the economic doctrine of "free enterprise." The cult of materialism stressed utility and discredited the humanitarian's dissenting creed. Churchmen often revised the Christian gospel to condone sordid and devious business practices; and cleverness rather than honesty became the businessman's password. Self-satisfied Americans scolded the revolvers against middle-class respectability and the genteel tradition.

One-hundred-per cent Americanism combated the growing irreverence for tradition and narrow nationalism. Idealistic internationalism, symbolized by the League of Nations, receded before the spread of the idea of isolation. Americans wanted the peoples of all nations to buy our goods and accept our ideas, while President Calvin Coolidge called, in effect, for a boycott against all importations—intellectual, political, or industrial. Hundreds of thousands of American citizens gave lip service to democratic ideals while they built the Ku Klux Klan into a veritable Frankenstein. Scientism challenged religious fundamentalism—the Bryan-Darrow encounter during the Scopes trial in the summer of 1925 exemplified the clash of

evolution and fundamental doctrine. Reformers, disillusioned or prophetic, engaged in verbal combat with the idolaters of the *status quo*.<sup>1</sup>

This turbulent decade, diffusing doubt and disillusionment, contributed a voluminous literature of pessimism to America's bookshelf. It cast up H. L. Mencken, who founded the *American Mercury* in 1924 to jeer at the foibles and foolishness of the masses, to ridicule American democracy, and to appeal to the snobbery of the self-styled intellectuals. It popularized Sinclair Lewis, whose best-sellers satirized middle-class society, while subtly suggesting a scheme of values more worthy of a civilized citizenry. It gave us William E. Woodward, who coined the word *debunk* and whose realistic life story of George Washington indicated that a new recipe was available for the crew that brew biography. "Debunking," as a biographical art, had come of age; it was a logical product of the "golden twenties."

The debunkers' formula contained a variety of ingredients—Freudian and behavioristic psychology, sensational journalism, Twentieth Century realism, and a dash of Lytton Strachey influence. Psychoanalysis and behaviorism suggested forces and factors which affected men's

<sup>1</sup> Merle Curti, *The Growth of American Thought* (New York, 1943) contains a chapter entitled, "Prosperity, Disillusionment, Criticism" (pp. 686-716) which evaluates the intellectual forces of the 1920's. Also see Ralph Henry Gabriel, *The Course of American Democratic Thought* (New York, 1940), and Oscar Cargill, *Intellectual America: The March of Ideas* (New York, 1941).

motives, and biographers seized upon these suppositions to personalize and popularize historical characters. Dr. Sigmund Freud, in attempting to explain behavior, advanced infantile experiences, sex, inhibitions, and *ego* as bases moulding personality and determining motivation. John B. Watson advanced the behavioristic theory of human nature by teaching a materialistic and mechanistic conception of mind. Both of these schools of psychology—the Freud and Watson schools—helped to undermine the traditional belief in man's intrinsic dignity and importance.

Sensational journalism contributed experiences in popularization of subject matter and a flippancy of style. Newspapermen omit the dull and ordinary facts and concentrate upon the human-interest items and the significant and dramatic incidents. They treat the characters as human beings and appeal to the readers' emotions. Their writing style is snappy, vulgar, and entertaining. The journalist who turns to biography writes to sell; the academic historian writes for history's sake. The journalist's product is vigorous and interesting; the thesis-trained historian's style is dull, dreary, and demoralizing. The journalist's racy and rambling works occupy the reading shelves in the homes, while the historian's ponderous tomes rest in dusty and remote corners of the libraries.

Twentieth Century realism welcomed the pragmatism of William James and the instrumentalist philosophy of John Dewey. Modern man, exposed to science and skepticism, refused to accept the legends of America's past; he wanted to view the historical characters of yesteryear as they were—not as posterity, indulging in apotheosis, had depicted them. That moral crusade, which history entitles "World War I," interrupted the pattern, but the decade following witnessed a revulsion, a distrust of hero-worship, and a trend toward cynical realism.

Lytton Strachey, an Englishman of letters, helped to revolutionize the art of writing biography by publishing his *Eminent Victorians* in 1918. This "new biography" was written in novel rather than historical form. Strachey broke with tradition in that he refused to whitewash his characters, yet he did not indulge in

detraction for its own sake. He displayed a spirit of realism in treating his characters as human beings. Historical facts were employed as the bases upon which he built, but they were marshalled according to a well-designed, dramatic pattern. Strachey practiced psychography—the art of drawing a portrait or psychograph from the subject's outstanding trait or characteristic. *Queen Victoria*, published in 1921, was proof that the Englishman had mellowed and mastered his ironic style and biographical power. In America, Gamaliel Bradford imitated Strachey successfully, fashioning two collective biographies, *Damaged Souls* (1923) and *Bare Souls* (1924).

The man who coined the word *debunk* stands in the vanguard of the American school of debunking. William E. Woodward's experiences in the newspaper field and the business world qualified him to blend the ingredients out of which debunking biography is compounded. In his first novel he introduced Michael Webb as a character and assigned to him the task of visiting the home of an automobile king, with instructions "to take the bunk out of that family by showing it up in its true relations."<sup>2</sup> The new-fledged novelist sought a word which would describe Michael Webb's profession and was tempted to designate him a "truth detective." While reading an editorial in the *London Times* on delousing stations at the front during World War I, Woodward found the word to suit the need. We have it in the inventor's own words:

Then, all of a sudden the proper description of Michael Webb's profession flashed through my mind. He was to be a "debunker," taking the bunk out of people and assertions just as lice were removed at the delousing stations. At that moment the word "debunk" was created.<sup>3</sup>

The new term became an accepted part of the English language, with its special meaning: "To remove the 'nonsense' or false sentiment from; hence, to remove (a person) from his 'pedestal.'"<sup>4</sup>

Several years after the publication of that first novel, *Bunk*, Mr. Woodward employed the

<sup>2</sup> William E. Woodward, "The Father of 'Debunk' Disinherits the Word," in *Chicago Sun, Book Week* (December 1, 1946).

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>4</sup> *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary I* (Oxford, 1936), 461.

Michael Webb technique in writing his first biography, entitled *George Washington—the Image and the Man* (1926). The reviewers' gallery, made up of devotees of the genteel tradition, criticized Woodward's word-portrait of Washington. One reviewer, steeped in history lore and devoted to historical methods, thought that the book represented neither biography nor history, but rather "a craftily arranged topical essay" in which the author was "fond of having Washington miss his opportunity."<sup>5</sup> A second admitted that the author had contributed a "brilliant, cynical, and clever portrait," and then added: "The most uncompromising realist is prone to cringe as Mr. Woodward in almost every chapter plucks the gaudy feathers with which worshipping or partisan biographers have bedecked and disguised the hero of the Revolution."<sup>6</sup> A third critic accused the journalist-biographer of wielding a "merciless scalpel" in dissecting Washington and labeled the author a "pseudo-psychopathic writer."<sup>7</sup>

Woodward's second biographical venture, *Meet General Grant* (1928), again featured a realistic interpretation and a readable presentation. Although the product was more mellow and the portrait more dignified, the venerable and hoary historians still frowned disapprovingly. One critic accused Woodward of being "cocksure and wrong, all through the book."<sup>8</sup>

The inventor of the term "debunk" had no monopoly on the formula for the "new biography." John K. Winkler, another refugee from the ranks of newspaper reporting, contributed two very readable books, *John D.: A Portrait in Oils* (1928) and *The Incredible Carnegie* (1931). A popular and prominent historian promptly defined Winkler's attitude toward Carnegie as "frankly cynical and hostile" and added that the biographer made an effort to paint a practical and unscrupulous Carnegie.<sup>9</sup> A prominent historiographer accused Winkler of holding Rockefeller and Carnegie "up to

scorn and ridicule as examples of malefactors of great wealth."<sup>10</sup>

Harvey O'Connor joined the parade of debunkers with his critical and extremely unfriendly *Mellon's Millions* (1933), a biography which marshalled facts and fancies to tell the story of Andrew Mellon's methods and his money. When O'Connor went in for assumptions, one reviewer noted, it was always the worst that he assumed of his man.<sup>11</sup> Another former newspaper man, Samuel Hopkins Adams, emphasized the inconsistencies of Daniel Webster's nature and aroused the wrath of the Bostonians who insisted upon glorifying their hero and who desired to make the words *Webster* and *statesman* synonymous. One reviewer of Adams' *Godlike Daniel* (1930) decried the "disproportionate space" given to Webster's faults and failings,<sup>12</sup> while another reproached the author for possessing no desire to be "balanced or judicial."<sup>13</sup>

Paxton Hibben contributed *Henry Ward Beecher: an American Portrait* (1927) and *Peerless Leader, William Jennings Bryan* (1929) to the book shelves and found himself being labeled a debunker and "mud-slinger." Herbert S. Gorman exceeded Strachey's moderate methods in *A Victorian American, Henry W. Longfellow* (1926). M. R. Werner's *Bryan* (1929) was classed as blasphemy by the crowd that worshipped at the tomb of the free-silver advocate; the Bryan congregation charged that Werner depicted a statesman as a "folk-hero, demagogue, politician, and fanatic."<sup>14</sup> Frederick F. Van de Water developed the thesis that Custer's hunger for honor and eagerness for exultation made him his own worst enemy in *Glory Hunter: a Life of General Custer* (1934). One censor indicted Van de Water for knocking Custer from his pedestal and "destroying the pedestal as well."<sup>15</sup>

No writer stirred up a larger hornet's nest of critics than did Edgar Lee Masters with *Lincoln, the Man* (1931). A swarm of cultists viciously attacked the Hoosier poet for por-

<sup>5</sup> N. W. Stephenson, in *New York World* (Oct. 17, 1926).

<sup>6</sup> Claude Bowers, *The Nation*, CXXIII, 431-432. Bowers, a disciple of Jefferson, approved Woodward's work, for it flattered Mr. Bowers' sympathetic volumes concerning Jefferson.

<sup>7</sup> Edward H. O'Neill, *A History of American Biography, 1800-1935* (Philadelphia, 1935), p. 169.

<sup>8</sup> C. W. Thompson, in *New York Times* (Nov. 11, 1928).

<sup>9</sup> Allan Nevins, in *Saturday Review of Literature* (Jan. 2, 1932).

<sup>10</sup> Edward H. O'Neill, *History of American Biography*, p. 228.

<sup>11</sup> Edward Angley, in *Books* (Aug. 3, 1933).

<sup>12</sup> *Christian Science Monitor* (Nov. 22, 1930).

<sup>13</sup> *Boston Transcript* (Nov. 26, 1930).

<sup>14</sup> Edward H. O'Neill, *History of American Biography*, p. 198.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 355.



traying a Lincoln "crafty in politics, selfish in motives, and wholly opportunistic."<sup>16</sup> "Mr. Masters not only audaciously topples Lincoln from his pedestal," wrote an established historian, "but even tries to smash the mutilated sections of the image into fragments."<sup>17</sup> Another nationalist reviewer added his censure: "It tears the public idol limb from limb; robs the young man of honesty of purpose, the budding lawyer of candor and truth, the President of greatness."<sup>18</sup> The defenders of the Lincoln legend adopted the allegation of an ally: "Lincoln belongs to the ages; Edgar Lee Masters, in this instance, to but a fleeting and nasty moment."

Scores of others dabbled in debunking. It became an accepted fad, appealing to the confused and disillusioned populace of the 1920's and 1930's. The reader's ego was satiated, for he could follow the debunker's realistic and human interpretation and mouth the mighty platitude, "I'm as good as he is." The public approved the biographical practice, and neophytes and neoterists hurried to practice the literary mode.

Although the school of debunking dealt with biography, popular usage extended and expanded the meaning of the word. Any writer who challenges accepted theses—in economics, politics, education or religion—may be labeled a debunker by the defenders of the *status quo*. It has become a term used to stigmatize the dissenter, for it is often easier to hurl a blanket charge than it is to defend a traditional belief or an accepted practice. So Sinclair Lewis is viewed as a debunker of American patterns when he dons the garb of a social psychiatrist. The effort of Stuart Chase to keep men human in a machine society and extend the moral law into the business world is ridiculed by *laissez-faire* capitalists and the patrons of monopoly capitalism.<sup>19</sup> Carleton Beals continues to debunk his country's power politics and imperialist

practices; the *Crime of Cuba* (1933) attacked our economic spoliation of Cuba and *Black River* (1934) challenged American oil imperialism in Mexico.

John Dewey, in scores of papers and publications challenged formal and classical education, advancing the thesis that social utility is a major objective. Matthew Josephson's realistic and penetrating study of the *Robber Barons* in the post-Civil War era is now classed as "an experience in debunking" by the friends of coercive capital and frenzied finance. Charles A. Beard, who once shocked the worshippers of tradition and legend with a bombshell which he named *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* (1913), has since seen his interpretation accepted in historical circles. Scores of others, with a reverence for facts rather than the past, have at one time or another been called debunkers by critics and reviewers; some have seen the history cult, at a later date, accept their work as authoritative. The debunker today may hold the warrant tomorrow.

One carping critic implied that these realistic historians and ranting biographers had adopted as their motto: "Whatever is, is wrong, especially if it is American."<sup>20</sup> This charge expresses the debunkers' irreverence for the past, for tradition, and for the nationalist or patriotic spirit. It decries, too, the tendency of some writers to glory in a man's failures or a nation's errors. Life is composed of lights and shadows, and to blacken the shadows is as wrong as to ignore them when they exist.

In his survey of American biography, Edward H. O'Neill stigmatized debunking as "an evil in modern American biography."<sup>21</sup> He forgets, however, that it was a logical product of the 1920's. He ignores the fact that it has resulted in humanizing historical characters. Washington did not lose in stature when Woodward presented him as a human being. Such writers have given a more balanced portrait of America's past. An increased interest in America's history has been aroused, and historians have learned that readability is a virtue rather than a vice.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 151.

<sup>17</sup> C. M. Feuss, in *Boston Transcript* (Feb. 7, 1931).

<sup>18</sup> Harry Hansen, in *New York World* (Feb. 6, 1931).

<sup>19</sup> Stuart Chase, *Rich Land, Poor Land* (1926) debunked the waste of our natural resources; the book became a plea for conservation; his *Democracy under Pressure* (1945) laid bare the activities and influences of blocs, lobbies, and monopolies which worked for selfish rather than national interests.

<sup>20</sup> C. E. Chapman, in *American Historical Review*, XXXIV (April, 1929), 667.

<sup>21</sup> Edward H. O'Neill, *History of American Biography*, p. 12.

## Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

*Graham Junior-Senior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York*

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the purposes, historical emergence and world importance of the United States and the part all people should play to insure peace and security. For all above, write to Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

"The Rise and Fall of Nazi Germany"—This is a 16 mm. sound film, running time 18 minutes. It shows the story of Hitler's Germany from the first broken treaty to the last stand in Berlin. The second part of the film deals with Allied occupation of Germany. Write to March of Time, New York, N. Y.

"There Were Three Men"—Ike and Mike, ordinary people, form cooperatives with other people like themselves, in order to combat high prices. The story treatment, with amusing animation, points up underlying reasons for co-operatives as cooperators see them. Write to National Cooperatives, Inc., New York 11, N. Y. for this 16 mm. colored sound film.

## News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

*Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey*

### TWO WORLDS OR ONE?

During the past few months we have been witnessing a highly interesting and significant shift in the thinking of many Americans on foreign policy. For several years the dominant theme was that there must be "one world" or chaos. All of our public leaders, except the few remaining isolationists, appeared to be convinced that these were the only alternatives, and they were generally accepted by the majority of our people. This conviction helped to launch the United Nations with comparatively little opposition, and it also produced a wide feeling of pessimism when the U.N. began to run into its present state of deadlock. It was assumed as a matter of course that unless the United Nations with its present membership could function efficiently and effectively, a third world war would be inevitable in a very short time.

Recently there has been an increasing amount of evidence that many believe there is a third

alternative after all. A number of men whose ideas command respect have begun to discuss frankly and openly the possibility that there can be a distinct division of the world into two spheres without the necessity of war, and that it may well be to the advantage of the capitalist democratic nations to encourage such a division. It is probable that we will see more and more expression of this idea in the near future, and the trend of its arguments are worth careful study.

The basic thought is that it has become quite apparent that the United Nations cannot function under the principle of unanimity as long as the interests of communism and democracy remain opposed. It is equally apparent that these interests are irreconcilable and beyond the range of compromise or accommodation. The unanimity principle cannot be eliminated without Russia's consent, which of course will never be given. Hence the world is faced with the prospect of a world organization deadlocked



by fundamental differences, and plagued by an ever-increasing spirit of rancor, ill-temper and frustration. It is hard to see how such a condition can ever result in anything but conflict unless it is altered.

There is a marked similarity here to the state of the Union before the Civil War. There was the same type of deadlock, where conflicting economic systems and modes of thought were bound by an unchangeable agreement into one organization. Compromise maintained peace for a time, but increasing pressures eventually forced a decision. The "divided house" could not be made to stand. For numerous reasons the decision took the form of armed conflict, and the union was retained with the doctrines and views of the stronger party as the guiding principles for the future. Time has indicated that this was a more satisfactory outcome than would have resulted from a division into two nations. The same great decision now faces the whole world. The house cannot continue to stand divided; shall it be united by the force of arms, or shall it be separated into two houses? The circumstances which dictated the first choice in 1861 do not exist to any great degree in the present crisis. The wisdom and necessity of the second alternative seem imperative. A powerless and ineffective government is worse than none, for by its very existence it prevents the operation of some more useful agency. A United Nations organization which does not include all the countries of the world can still be a more effective power for peace and security if those who do compose it have harmonious views and a common determination to work together. Unanimity of membership means little if there is not also unanimity of purpose.

It is widely agreed that Russia does not want war if it can be avoided. Its purposes can best be attained by the familiar communistic tactics of boring from within and fomenting discord inside the ranks of democracy. The present United Nations provides an admirable arena for this type of activity, for Russia has nothing to lose and everything to gain. The future of capitalism and democracy depend upon the successful rebuilding of an international economic prosperity based on capitalism, and it is to Russia's interest to prevent this from occurring.

It is far less likely to occur if the communist bloc of nations maintains its partnership in the process. The reconstruction of western economy is likely to proceed much more rapidly if the forces inimical to it are outside rather than inside its orbit.

Free enterprise and capitalism grew and developed in past centuries with little or no assistance from the nations which compose the communist group. Its success as an economic system may often seem questionable, but it produced results which most western peoples still regard as desirable. We have not yet seen any evidence that communism or socialism can provide a shorter or a better route to the good life.

If, then, the world should be divided into two spheres, one of capitalism and one of communism, we ought not to be afraid of the eventual outcome. Time should then be in our favor, for our efforts at cooperative rehabilitation and growth would not be balked by enemies within our own ranks, and the superiorities of our system would have a chance to show themselves. Economic welfare is a fundamental factor in politics everywhere, and communism has yet to prove that it can provide a better life for the great majority of people than can the methods we believe in. In a "two-world" scheme of things, communism might well be in a far weaker position than it is today.

There are many who are coming to feel that while it is regrettable that the one-world concept is still unattainable, it would be better to recognize the fact than to try to ignore it much longer. Both peace and the eventual downfall of communism may be made more certain by the acceptance of the iron curtain as a boundary between two worlds, free to develop within themselves on their own merits.

#### THE TEACHING VALUE OF FILMS

The use of films in the classroom still has many opponents among administrators, school board members and even teachers. The grounds for objection are extremely varied and of very uneven merit. One hears that films are merely a form of entertaining children; that good educational films are rare; that they are simply a means of making things easier for the teacher; that pupils have become too movie-sophisticated to appreciate educational films; that the use of films is too expensive for the value obtained;

that they are too much trouble; or that they do not provide the retention value that reading affords. Some of these objections have a basis in truth, and any of them may have justification in single instances. There are certainly not enough good films, and the difficulties of obtaining and presenting films are undoubtedly greater than those which attend the use of textbooks. These, however, are problems not necessarily inherent in film material, but due to the fact that their use in schools is still a novelty. Textbooks probably constituted as great a problem two hundred years ago.

The value of films as a teaching device is, however, a question of basic importance. If everyone concerned could be convinced that in many instances pupils can learn better from seeing than by reading, the technical problems would be overcome much more quickly. The use of teaching films in training courses in the armed services has done a great deal to remove prejudices against them, but it remains for teachers themselves to do most of the work in proving the value of films. Carefully conducted experiments in the classroom whose results are made public will eventually do more than anything else to convince doubters that visual aids can in many instances do the work of the textbook more thoroughly and more rapidly.

An excellent example of such an experiment was reported in *The Clearing House* for September. Mrs. Adeline Richardson and Mrs. Gertrude Smith of the Los Angeles schools conducted the experiment under rigid control conditions. Homogeneous groups of junior and senior high school pupils were divided into control and experimental sections. The general subject used was health education, specifically about malaria, hookworm, and tuberculosis. Pre-tests were given both groups; then the experimental group was shown the Walt Disney Health Films on these diseases while the control group was given the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company pamphlets on the same subjects.

In neither case was there any class discussion or explanation of the material, thus eliminating any factors which could be contributed by the teacher. A month later the same pre-test was given again. In the junior high school group, those who had seen the films improved their test scores 45 per cent; those who had read the

pamphlets improved only 22 per cent. Increases for senior high school pupils were 25 per cent and eight per cent respectively. The largest gains in knowledge were made by the experimental pupils with the lowest reading ability and I.Q., but even the most superior pupils in the experimental group improved their scores 23 per cent. Another interesting result of the experiment was that when discussion of the subjects was finally permitted after the second test, the interest and curiosity of the pupils who had seen the films were much greater than with the control group. Experiments such as this can be carried out in many schools and in many subject fields, and the results can do a great deal to break down prejudices against films in the school.

#### EDUCATION IN GERMANY

*School Life* for October contained an important series of articles on problems basic to the rebuilding of public education in Germany. The symposium was written by members of the staff of the U. S. Office of Education who were members of the United States Education Mission to Germany. A summary of the mission's recommendations is followed by special articles on secondary education, the social studies, evaluation and guidance, curriculum, school plants, and instructional materials and methods. Together they provide an excellent over-all picture of what has been done and still needs to be done about education in Germany under the occupation.

Of special interest to social studies teachers is the section dealing with that field, as reported on by Howard R. Anderson. The Educational Mission's report states that "the most important change needed in all German schools is a change in the whole concept of the social sciences, both with respect to content and form." To study the special needs in this field, seven social studies specialists were sent to Berlin early this year. This committee examined the German school system at first hand and prepared a detailed report and set of recommendations, which will soon be published. It was evident that the process of democratization depends very largely on the social studies program, and that that field has been one of the most neglected or misused in all the pre-1945 German curriculum. The detailed report of the

social studies mission to Germany will be extremely well worth reading when it is made available to the public.

#### NOTES

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA is sponsoring the distribution of a resource unit for secondary school teachers entitled "Living in the Atomic Age." The unit was prepared by members of the Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois. Like any good resource unit, it is not for teaching purposes but rather to provide teachers with background material and ideas from which they can construct a teaching unit. This unit is an excellent one which includes a chapter on the physical and social background of atomic energy, lists of objectives and pupils' questions, a wide variety of suggestions for pupil activities, and an annotated bibliography. Single copies may be obtained for 20 cents from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

The Fifth Report of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, entitled *Security and Disarmament Under the United Nations*, may be obtained from the Commission at 45 East 65th St., New York 21. It embodies the recommendations and conclusions of the Commission, of which Dr. James T. Shotwell is chairman. Sumner Welles, Clyde Eagleton, and Clark Eichelberger are among the members of the drafting committee.

A booklet which should be familiar to social studies teachers is that prepared by the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress and entitled, *Communism in Action: A Documented Study and Analysis of Communism in Operation in the Soviet Union*. It is a thorough survey of 140 pages prepared from the best available sources of the way in which communism actually functions in the social, political and economic life of the Russian people. Copies may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents; the booklet is listed as

House Document No. 754, 79th Congress, 2nd Session.

The International Labor Office was the first general international organization which the United States joined, and the only agency of the League of Nations which has survived as an agency of the United Nations. In spite of its fine record of usefulness, its work is little known in this country. In order to explain its purposes and functions to the schools, the ILO has issued a brief descriptive booklet. It is written for young people, and should be a valuable source of information to social studies classes. Copies may be obtained from the International Labor Office, 734 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Several publications of importance have recently been issued by the Department of State. Copies may be obtained by ordering at the price indicated from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Volume I of the *General Report* of the Committee of European Economic Cooperation (Dept. of State Publication No. 2930—30 cents) is the full text of the Paris Conference which met this summer to determine Europe's needs under the Marshall Plan. *Problems of United States Foreign Economic Policy* (Dept. of State Publication No. 2750—10 cents) is an analysis by Willard L. Thorp, Assistant Secretary of State for economic affairs. *The Development of the Foreign Reconstruction Policy of the United States* is a compilation of excerpts from official statements made by the President and State Department officials between March and July, 1947, which, placed together in this way, form the basic pattern of our foreign reconstruction policy. This is Department of State Publication No. 2912—10 cents. The text of the *Draft Charter for the International Trade Organization of the United Nations* is Publication No. 2927—30 cents.

The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History has announced that the week of February 8 will be Negro History Week. The theme will be "The Whole Truth and Nothing but the Whole Truth."



## Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

*American Sea Power Since 1775.* Edited by Allan Westcott. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1947. Pp. viii, 609. \$3.00.

Professor Westcott, with a number of his associates at the Naval Academy, has presented in this single volume the story of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1945. The need for this type of work can not be denied. Students of American history too long have suffered from a lack of detailed knowledge of their navy.

While this work covers the most important exploits of the navy, it, in the opinion of this reviewer, suffers two important weaknesses. The book contains some 600 pages, of which 300 deal with World War II. This is considered as a weakness for the reason that at best the material at the disposal of Professor Westcott and his associates has been secondary. The Navy Department during World War II established the Office of Naval History, headed by Admiral Edward C. Kalbfus, who was ably assisted by Captain Samuel E. Morison and Professor Robert Albion. These men are now in the process of presenting the first-hand story of the navy during the last war. Captain Morison has already published one volume on the Salerno campaign. This work also shows weakness when the authors attempt to draw conclusions on purely political and diplomatic questions in American history. (p. 197.)

Professor Westcott and his associates, in the first half of their book present the growth of the American navy in graphic form. There are numerous diagrams for all important engagements, from the cruises of John Paul Jones to Dewey's victory at Manila. The book also contains copious charts showing the comparative strength of navies or of particular ships. All of this material gathered within the covers of one volume is an asset for teachers of American history.

The authors are guilty of what we might call misplaced loyalty. The pattern is to praise all

ex-Secretaries of the Navy for the fine job they did, and to be fully convinced that the wars could never have been won without the navy. History tells us that all the men who headed our Navy Department, both in war and peace, were not of the Wells or Forrestal caliber. We are also well aware that, while the navy has always been an important cog in the wheel of war, the army has also had its place. The fallacy is to be found in all branches of the service, but not always with the finesse displayed by navy writers.

This book does an excellent piece of work on the early period of American history. The descriptions of the victories at sea during the War of 1812 are well done. The chapter on the lake campaigns, during the same war, present a sane and calm explanation of their importance to the final outcome of this second war for independence. All students of American history realize that, if England had controlled the Great Lakes, Wellington would have taken the American command and the outcome might have taken on a different complexion.

The chapters covering the Civil War are most interesting from the detailed descriptions of the blockade, and the battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*. The effect of the ironclad on future naval architecture is handled with ability.

Teachers of American history will find that many details of naval engagements, that are passed over lightly in our history texts, come to life in this work. A copy should be on the shelf of each school library in this country. The navy, with all its short-sightedness during the past decades, has done a good job. It is our duty as teachers to present that story to the best of our ability. This volume will ease that task.

JAMES J. FLYNN

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*Social Work Year Book, 1947.* Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947. Pp. 714. \$3.50.

This issue of the *Social Work Year Book* provides a valuable resource for social studies teachers at a time when there is an obvious need for up-to-date knowledge of research and action groups because of the increasing complexity of national problems. As we continue to break down compartmentalized stereotypes and become more sensitive to the interrelationship of the various social sciences, the value of this *Year Book* and similar resources looms even greater.

For those who are not acquainted with the *Year Book*, it is "A Description of Organized Activities in Social Work and in Related Fields." Part I, consisting of 564 pages, contains "An Authoritative Record of Organized Activities," such as Adoption, Adult Education, The Aged, Alcoholism, The Blind, Camping, Child Welfare, Community Chests, Consumer Protection, Disaster Relief, Housing and City Planning, International Social Work, Labor Standards, Public Health, Rural Social Programs, Social Action, Youth Services, Vocational Rehabilitation, etc., etc.. As examples of the coverage in Part I, the section on "Medical Care" consists of a ten-page analysis, including "The Hill-Burton Act," "The Taft-Smith-Ball Bill," "Voluntary Health Insurance," "National Health Insurance," "The Wagner-Murray-Dingell Bill," "Organization of Medical Services," and twenty-six listings in a bibliography on "Medical Care." The section on "Public Welfare" is also a ten-page analysis, including "Early History," "Emergency Relief," "Social Security," "Categorical Public Assistance," "General Assistance," "Children's Services," "Care of the Infirm and Chronically Ill," "Changing Trends," etc., with thirty-one listings in the bibliography. The plan of presentation and analysis is similar for the balance of the seventy-nine organized activities included. Some eighty-four nationally known authorities have cooperated in the preparation of these analyses.

Part II consists of a directory of 539 governmental and voluntary National agencies. Vital information for each includes, besides addresses and officers, a description of "Membership" and "Purpose and Activities." For a large

number there is also information on periodicals published.

Teachers at all grade levels will find this *Year Book* a valuable aid in securing supplementary teaching materials and suggesting student activities. There are many helpful surprises in store for those who have not used this reference book, so complete and stimulating is its coverage.

HOMER T. KNIGHT

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New York City

*Sense and Nonsense in Education.* By H. M. Lafferty. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 202. \$2.00.

"*Sense and Nonsense in Education* is offered up sans plan, sans prayer rug, sans a reading knowledge of materia medica. If he must declare himself as to educational leanings, this author's position is considered to be a little bit north of South Carolina." Thus, in the Foreword, the author introduces the reader to his book.

The problems examined fall into three main groups. First are conceptions, or the misconceptions rather, of the teacher as an individual. "As go the teachers, so goes the school," is a slogan that is generally ignored by lay people. Next are considered such subjects as the contents of school subjects, reports of pupil progress, intelligence testing, and guidance programs. The remaining chapters are described as bits of doodling in topics that are being discussed in educational circles.

Perhaps the reader will agree with the conclusions and perhaps he will not. But whether he does or not, he will be stimulated by the author's informal vocabulary and lucid style, free from the educational terminology so often mistaken as the badge of scholarship.

Teachers are normal human beings, with the same likes and dislikes, passions, and frailties as lawyers, doctors, businessmen, or stenographers. They should regard themselves as such and so should the public. Mr. Lafferty writes as one who goes to the movies, reads the funnies, listens to radio comedians, and has social contacts with people in all walks of life. His informal style of writing is refreshing and his viewpoints make teacher-readers respect their kind a little more.

*The Study and Teaching of American History.*

Edited by Richard E. Thursfield. Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1947. Pp. 442. \$2.00, paper-bound; \$2.50, clothbound.

The seventeenth annual yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies emphasizes the place of American history in building a better understanding of international responsibilities. In the foreword, the editor declares, "American history is a vital part if not the essential core of any program of preparation for intelligent American citizenship in this interdependent world." It is written primarily for secondary school teachers.

Thirty-three articles, by leading historians and curriculum experts, deal mainly with the changing form and content of history courses, ranging from elementary to college level, and make suggestions for improvements.

The first section, edited by Lewis Paul Todd of State Teachers College, Danbury, Conn., traces the evolution of American history, the changing of courses, and current trends in the selection and organization of content.

The section, "Newer Interpretations and Emphases in American History," edited by J. Montgomery Gambrill, surveys the recent books dealing with the fundamentals of interpretation and changed interpretations. The list, it seems, is more useful to college teachers than to secondary school teachers.

Erling M. Hunt, of Teachers College, Columbia University, shows how American history is related to the other social studies and to other school subjects. He concludes that the need for over-all planning is the chief consideration. It is not the pattern of curriculum organization that counts so much. But whatever pattern is selected should be in line with the best of scholarship, in the interests of society, and abreast of social change.

Miss Mary Kelty edits a section on the vertical articulation of the curriculum and reports on a study of the middle grades. It appears that much remains to be done throughout the entire school cycle in determining the best placement of the periods of history, in making differentiations of content, and in the progression of procedures.

The section of methods and materials includes reading, audio-visual aids, biography,

primary sources, and the use of local, state, and regional resources. William H. Hartley of the State Teachers College, Towson, Md., says that history teachers are falling behind in the use of pictures, maps, graphs, motion pictures, and radio programs.

Two sections are devoted to the use of tests and the preparation of teachers, described as the "keystone" in any plan for improving the teaching of American history.

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*A Dictionary of International Affairs.* By A. M. Hyamson. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1947. Pp. 353. \$3.75.

This is an encyclopedic handbook with a wide range of information on international affairs. Developments since World War I get the major emphasis.

Many nations, colonies, cities, and islands are included. At the head of the alphabet are Aaland Islands, Abyssinia, Aden, Afghanistan, British West Africa, French Equatorial Africa, French North Africa, French West Africa, South-West Africa, Albania, Alsace-Lorraine, etc. For each one is given one or two pages of information with international import.

It deals with such varied subjects as freedom of the seas, free trade and protection, Geneva Convention, geo-politics, gold standard, Greed Patriots, Hague Conventions, imperialism, International Labor Organization, Irredentism, and The Lausanne Agreement. Statistics are also found on minerals, agricultural produce, and industrial products. Among the headings in this class are nickel, oil, phosphates, platinum, pyrites, radium, rubber, and soya beans.

The book is useful as a handy reference book for social studies classes.

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*James Harvey Robinson, Teacher of History.*

By Luther V. Hendricks. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp. xii, 124. Paper. \$2.00.

During the past half century there have been many significant changes in the organization and presentation of history in our public school system. There has been less emphasis on ancient and medieval history, more attention to such areas as Latin America and the Orient. Within the limitations of time and place there have been significant changes in content. Fifty



years ago the emphasis was on political, military and diplomatic history; today an increasing amount of time is devoted to social and economic history. Professor Hendricks points out, in his preface, that these changes "were brought about through the activities of educational leaders and various professional associations concerned with bettering historical instruction, through influential reports and recommendations of a series of professional committees interested in improving historical study and of adapting it to the educational requirements of the modern age, and through innovations appearing in textbooks. The one figure prominent in all these agencies of change is James Harvey Robinson."

The author has done careful research in the limited number of available Robinson Papers, in the various writings of Robinson, and in the professional literature that was influenced, directly or indirectly, by Robinson. He has arranged his material in four main divisions: James Harvey Robinson: Historian, Scholar and Teacher; The New History; Robinson's Textbooks; and Robinson's Influences. The influence of Robinson upon the changes in historical content and methods of the past half century are clearly demonstrated. This book will be of little value to the classroom teacher below the college level. It should, however, prove rewarding to all who are interested in the changes and developments in the teaching of history.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Cornish Flat, New Hampshire

#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited by R. T. SOLIS-COHEN  
Philadelphia, Pa.

*From Sail to Steam.* By H. Moyse-Bartlett. London: The Historical Association, 1946. Pp. 19. Non-members may obtain copies at 1s 1d each, and members may obtain extra copies at 7d each.

From the dugout canoes of ancient Britain, the author traces the evolution of water transportation through the final development and passing of the sailing ship. The pamphlet is written in charming, polished prose and concludes with a useful bibliography.

*Immigration Policy of the United States.* By Earl G. Harrison. Foreign Policy Reports. April 1, 1947. Pp. 20. 25 cents.

As a preface to his discussion of post-war immigration problems, Dean Harrison reviews the development of American immigration laws. Since World War II there has been a drive for further restriction of immigration. Some advocates of restriction also oppose positive action to aid the displaced persons. Mr. Harrison believes that American policy should be dictated by enlightened self-interest. He would have the United States admit 400,000 of these displaced persons at the rate of 100,000 a year for four years. A brief three-quarter page summary of the racial discriminations in American immigration laws is printed on the last page of the *Report*. It is entitled "Racial Limitations in Immigration and Naturalization Laws," and is written by Charles Gordon, who would abolish all racial restrictions in the immigration and naturalization laws. However, instead of the "Barred Zone" provision and aliens "ineligible to citizenship," he proposes that small quotas be set up for other Asiatics as they were in the case of the Chinese, the East Indians, and the Filipinos.

*A Program of Intercultural Education in San Diego.* Prepared by the San Diego Members of the Workshop, San Diego City Schools Curriculum Center, 1946. Los Angeles, California: The Pacific Coast Council on Intercultural Education, 1947. Pp. 95.

The program suggests specific activities for the classroom on the various grade levels and gives timely bibliographical references, topically arranged, a film bibliography and a phonograph record bibliography. An unusual and highly commendable characteristic of this pamphlet is its citation of definite and specific examples, its contrasting a common prejudice with the facts, and democratic principles with the actual practices, and especially its "Do's" and "Don'ts" of Intergroup Education.

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*Administrative Behavior: A Study of Decision-Making Processes in Administrative Organization.* By Herbert A. Simon. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. xvi, 259. \$4.00.

A study of the influence of an organization upon the people who work in it.

*Europe and Two World Wars.* By Arthur James May. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947. Pp. xi, 700. \$4.90.

A college-level survey of the main developments in Europe from 1914 to the present. A volume in the Scribner Historical Series.

*The School in the American Social Order: The Dynamics of American Education.* By Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Pp. xiv, 880. \$5.00.

A history of education viewed against the background of a broad social setting and the general historical development of the period.

*A History of Western Education.* By H. G. Good. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. vi, 575. \$5.00.

A college text.

*Survey of Labor Economics.* By Florence Peterson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xix, 843. \$4.00.

A college text for a survey course that treats labor problems as a special field of economics. Useful reference for secondary school social studies teachers.

*Essentials of American Government.* By Fred-eric A. Ogg and P. Orman Ray. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1947. Pp. 728. \$4.25.

A new edition of a college text, with subject-matter brought up to date and a new chapter on the improvement of Congress.

*Using Our Earth.* By Gertrude Whipple and Preston E. James. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 296. \$2.20.

One of the Whipple-James series of basal geographies. Written for the fourth grade.

*Richer by Asia.* Edmond Taylor. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Pp. x, 432. \$3.75.

The author, formerly an OSS officer in India, gives a sympathetic analysis of the ways of thought and guiding principles of the Asiatic.

*Lincoln: The Liberal Statesman.* By J. G. Randall. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1947. Pp. iv, 266. \$4.50.

The foremost Lincoln-scholar throws new light on Lincoln in the critical years of the Civil War.

*Society, Culture, and Personality: Their Structure and Dynamics.* By Pitirim A. Soro-

kin. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xi, 742. \$5.00.

A treatise on general sociology for the advanced student.

*The Faith of Our Fathers: A Handbook on the Constitution of the United States.* By A. J. Cloud. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1947. Pp. 253. Illustrated. \$1.68.

An explanation of the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, clause by clause.

*Marriage Is on Trial.* By Judge John A. Sbarbaro. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. xiv, 128. \$2.00.

A judge with long experience on the divorce bench writes on the essentials of a happy marriage.

*General Education in the Humanities.* By Harold Baker Dunkel. Washington, D. C.: American Council of Education, 1947. Pp. 321. \$3.50.

A report on a five-year cooperative study in General Education by a group of selected American colleges.

*Cooperation in General Education.* By the Executive Committee of the Cooperative Study in General Education. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. 240. \$3.00.

A report on the Cooperative Study in General Education. Summaries are given of the major studies in the humanities, the social studies, student personnel work, and in the sciences, which are reported more completely in separate volumes.

*Contemporary Problems Here and Abroad.* By Edith West, Dorothy Merideth, and Edgar B. Wesley. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1947. Pp. 598. \$2.28.

A collection of selected units, the type of timely topics often provided in pamphlets, in a standard textbook format designed for the senior high school social studies curriculum.

*Battle for the Hemisphere: Democracy versus Totalitarianism in the Other Americas.* By Edward Tomlinson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947. Pp. 250. \$3.50.

The book reveals the rise of Communism and extreme Nationalism in Latin America, and the democratic forces resisting the tide, and emphasizes the responsibility of the United States in supporting the democratic forces.

*The Lands of Middle America.* By C. E. Castaneda, Eleanor C. Delaney, Prudence Cutright, and W. W. Charters. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 383. \$2.00.

Stories about the people of the Caribbean Islands, Mexico, Central America, and Panama. A textbook for the intermediate grades.

*Roman Panorama: A Background for Today.* By Humfrey Grose-Hodge. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. xviii, 260. \$2.88.

Written to give an intimate view of the Roman world to those who are studying the Latin language.

*Social Relations and Structures: A Study in Principles of Sociology.* By E. T. Hiller. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xii, 692. \$4.50.

A textbook for an introductory course in sociology.

*The Record of American Diplomacy: Documents and Readings in the History of American Foreign Relations.* Edited by Ruhl J. Bartlett. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1947. Pp. xx, 730, xvii. \$6.00.

Over 300 selections, arranged chronologically, drawn from treaties, diplomatic dispatches, instructions, speeches, and other sources, official and unofficial.

*Fundamental Education: Common Ground for All Peoples.* By a Special Committee to the Preparatory Commission of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris, 1946. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 281. \$2.50.

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Second edition.



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